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REPORT V (I)

International Labour Conference

THIRTIETH SESSION

GENEVA, 1947

Employment Service Organisation

Fifth Item on the Agenda

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INTRODUCTION

At its 98th Session the Governing Body of the International Labour Office decided to place on the agenda of the 30th Session of the International Labour Conference, which is to meet on 19 June 1947 in Geneva, the question of employment service organisation. It also decided that this question should be considered under the double-discussion procedure.

It may be recalled that at its 1st Session (Washington, 1919) the Conference adopted a Convention concerning unemployment, Article 2 of which provides for the establishment of a system of free public employment agencies under the control of a central authority; for the appointment of advisory committees, including representatives of employers and workers; for the co-ordination of public and private free employment agencies on a national scale; and for the co-ordination of the various national systems by the International Labour Office in agreement with the countries concerned. This Convention has been ratified by 31 countries.¹

At its 17th Session (Geneva, 1933) the Conference considered the question of fee-charging employment agencies and adopted a Convention and a Recommendation on this subject. The Convention provides for the abolition of such agencies conducted with a view to profit, and for the supervision of those not conducted with a view to profit.

Since 1919 there has been a great increase in employment service facilities throughout the world. In the few countries which already had such a service in 1919 its scope and functions have been extended. In addition, many countries which in 1919 had no employment service have established one and have found it increasingly useful. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that the Unemployment Convention, 1919, has had a great influence in bringing about this social advance over a wide geographical field.

When the war came in 1939 the value of the employment service was more fully recognised than ever before. It was in fact found to be an indispensable weapon in the mobilisation of manpower for the armed forces and for war production. The experience gained during the conflict focused attention once more on employment

¹ The text of the Convention and the list of countries which have ratified it will be found in Appendix I.

service problems and on possible changes that might be introduced after the war.

At its 26th Session (Philadelphia, 1944) the Conference considered this matter as a part of employment organisation in the transition from war to peace, and it adopted the Employment Service Recommendation, 1944, which contains provisions applicable not only in the transition period but also as a part of long-term policy. This is made clear by the fact that in it the Conference recommends the Members of the Organisation to report to the International Labour Office *from time to time*, as requested by the Governing Body, concerning the measures taken to give effect to its principles. The text of the Recommendation and an extract from the report of the Committee of the 26th Session of the Conference which studied the question of employment organisation in the transition from war to peace, containing that part of the report relating to the employment service, is included in Appendix I.

It would seem that in placing this question on the agenda of the 30th Session of the Conference, the Governing Body had in mind the adoption of a Convention. The Office note, which was the basis of the Governing Body's decision, clearly expressed the view of the Office that "it would seem useful to bring together these decisions of the Conference in the form of a Convention, revising them in the light of present conditions, and to add to them as may be desirable other provisions concerning the employment service and the organisation of employment. The Convention would replace Article 2 of the Unemployment Convention, 1919." Moreover, in view of the work which has already been done by the Conference on this question even in very recent years, and of the fact that there are already in existence a Convention and two Recommendations concerning the general problems of the employment service, it seems hardly likely that the Governing Body would have set in motion the complicated double-discussion procedure unless it had contemplated the adoption of a Convention. The opinion of the Governments is therefore requested, in Questions 1 and 2 of the Questionnaire appearing in Chapter X, regarding the form that the proposed international regulations should take.

Article 32 of the Standing Orders of the Conference prescribes the preparatory stages of double-discussion procedure. In particular, it states that the International Labour Office "shall prepare as soon as possible a preliminary report setting out the law and practice in the different countries and any other useful information, together with a questionnaire. The report and the questionnaire requesting

the Governments to give reasons for their replies shall be communicated by the Office to the Governments at the earliest possible date so as to reach them at least six months before the opening of the Conference." As the Conference is to meet on 19 June 1947, this report should reach Governments not later than 19 December 1946. The second step in the procedure is for the Office to submit the present report to the Conference "together with a further report drawn up on the basis of the replies from the Governments indicating the principal questions which require consideration by the Conference". In order that this second report may be prepared in time, it is essential that the replies of the Governments to the questionnaire should be received by the International Labour Office in *Montreal* as early as possible and, in any case, not later than *15 March 1947*.

CHAPTER I

GENERAL SURVEY

The development of public responsibility for employment service organisation has been a striking characteristic of the evolution of social policy during the last few decades. The idea of a public employment service has its roots in many different aspects of twentieth century industrial society.

Before the war of 1914-1918, organised efforts to help workers to find employment had passed through several stages. At first, such placement work as was done was in the hands of private agencies conducted with a view to profit. Later, it was also undertaken by employers' associations or trade unions, each one defending its own special interests. Gradually, joint employer-trade union placement schemes were put into effect in certain industries and certain countries. Finally, the idea of a public employment service began to take shape. Isolated employment offices were set up in a number of European and non-European countries. In 1909, Great Britain pioneered with the creation of the first national employment service, and at about the same time there was an extensive development of public employment service work in Germany.

With the war of 1914-1918, the belligerent countries had to face national manpower problems; the basis for their solution was found in new or greatly extended systems of public employment offices, which, though highly inexperienced, provided the machinery for mobilising and redistributing labour resources. At the conclusion of hostilities in 1918, efforts were made to consolidate the substantial progress in employment service organisation which had resulted from the exigencies of the war and immediate post-war period. These efforts were encouraged by the adoption by the International Labour Conference in 1919 of the Unemployment Convention, Article 2 of which provides for the establishment of a system of free public employment agencies under the control of a central authority.

In most countries, however, the immediate result of peace was a weakening of the position of the employment service in the national economy. This happened for a number of reasons. In the first place,

the employment offices had had little chance to integrate their activities closely with day-to-day industrial life; they had never fully won the confidence of employers and workers or their organisations. Secondly, they were inexperienced and had made mistakes which tended to prejudice various groups against them; peace came before they had had an opportunity to perfect their organisation and methods. Thirdly, they were associated by the general public with a war rather than with a peace economy. In many countries (the United States, for instance) they were considered an unnecessary extravagance when the war had been won. Finally, one fundamental reason why the employment service machinery lost ground was that during the war there had been a definite employment policy; after the war, there was none. Most countries had not even the first elements of a positive post-war programme. The cumulative effect of these various factors was that the need for retaining the employment service at wartime strength was not recognised, and the machinery was left relatively isolated from industrial life and from national economic and social policy.

Despite the failure immediately after World War I to consolidate wartime gains, there is no doubt that the idea of a public employment service had taken a firm hold. The industrial fluctuations of the 'twenties brought into relief the need for some kind of official machinery for putting men and women seeking work into touch with those seeking workers, with a minimum of delay. The growth of unemployment insurance and assistance schemes in various countries provided an additional imperative reason for developing employment office machinery, since the administration of these schemes required some effective control for determining whether the persons claiming unemployment benefit or allowances were available for suitable employment and willing to accept it if offered to them. Thus, before the end of 1930, the Unemployment Convention, 1919, had been ratified by 23 countries, 21 in Europe and 2 outside Europe.¹ Progress was definite and steady in many European countries and in a few other countries. The range of

¹ These were (with the year of ratification): Austria (1924), Belgium (1930), Bulgaria (1922), Denmark (1921), Estonia (1922), Finland (1921), France (1925), Germany (1925), Great Britain (1921), Greece (1920), Hungary (1928), Ireland (1925), Italy (1923), Japan (1922), Luxembourg (1928), Norway (1921), Poland (1924), Rumania (1921), Spain (1923), Sweden (1921), Switzerland (1922), Union of South Africa (1924), and Yugoslavia (1927). India ratified the Convention in 1921, on the basis of the famine relief system, but in 1938 it denounced the Convention and is therefore no longer bound by it (cf. *The International Labour Code*, 1939, pp. 11-13). A list of the countries which had ratified the Unemployment Convention, 1919, by December 1946 is included in Appendix I.

placements made through the employment service was widening gradually, owing partly to more favourable economic conditions and partly to continuous improvements in the methods of the service and a greater appreciation of the part that it could play in an industrial economy when properly supported. Employers were becoming more aware of the practical advantages of recruiting workers through public employment offices as well as in other ways. Since all workers applying for unemployment benefit or allowance were required to register for work with an employment office, the applicants for employment made up an increasingly representative cross-section of the working population.

The depression which lasted for the greater part of the 'thirties had serious repercussions on employment service development in all parts of the world. Employment work was swamped by the duties which the offices in all countries had to perform in connection with the payment of unemployment benefit and allowances. The whole outlook of the offices inevitably became negative. They were diverted, as the British Minister of Labour and National Service later pointed out, from "offices placing people to offices paying people". Nevertheless, the very exigencies of the mass unemployment situation required the existence or development of some kind of employment machinery, and progress in the employment service field was not wholly arrested, especially not in countries outside Europe. It was in 1933, for example, that the United States Employment Service was built up. Within six months of its creation, it was able to carry out the vast task of placing two and one-third million persons in one month (of whom, however, over two million were placed on relief and work relief projects). In other countries as well (Canada, New Zealand and several of the Australian States, among others), the depression acted as a stimulus for the development and co-ordination of employment offices, even though, once set up, these offices were forced to concentrate on unemployment rather than employment work.

The rise of Fascism in Italy and National-Socialism in Germany also affected the course of employment service history before the war broke out. In Italy, employment offices were made an integral part of the corporative State, as a "prophylactic for class conflict". It was considered that the State, "by intervening at this point [placing], which is the most delicate aspect of the whole cycle of production, is not merely performing an economic duty by preventing a useless waste of wealth and consequently reducing the cost of production, but also a moral duty in seeking to enforce

the discipline of law in relationships which up to the present have been governed by the blind play of opposing forces".¹ In Germany, the system of employment offices, well built up before the National-Socialist régime came to power, was immediately put to use to serve the purposes of the Nazi economy. At first, it was a question of "abolishing unemployment"; then, from 1936 on, the employment service played a basic part in the war preparations of that country, and every effort was made to improve the technical efficiency of the service. In both these countries, the employment services became the mainspring of the whole organisation of employment. Their technical competence, however, was obtained at a great cost. Their work was entirely dependent on the political aims of the Governments and on the economic policies adopted in pursuit of those aims. Since the objective was war, the economic programme had to be carried out rapidly. For workers, and for large numbers of employers as well, this meant more and more coercion. The employer, in finding and using his labour force, and the worker, in choosing or changing his trade and job, were both increasingly subject to the orders of the Fascist or Nazi authorities.

The Soviet Union, with a planned economy, expanding production and full employment, set up an employment service in 1934, but in practice most hiring was done at the factory gate. Control over labour allocation was exercised by methods for training and distributing young workers entering employment for the first time according to planned national requirements for each industry and enterprise, by placing restrictions on the turnover of workers already employed, and by indirect means such as differential wages or other advantages or disadvantages in conditions of work calculated to attract or divert workers.

To sum up, it can be said that, in the inter-war period, there was a persistent forward movement in employment service organisation and growth, though the volume and character of the work done in each country varied closely with economic conditions, declining in times of depression and increasing with improved industrial activity. It must be admitted, however, that in September 1939 the public employment service of most countries played a relatively small part in national employment market organisation and held a relatively low place in the public esteem. To many a worker, the local employment office was a cheerless place where he had registered for work without expecting to find it. To many an employer, it was

¹ *Gli uffici di collocamento* (Rome, Ed. del "Diritto del Lavoro", 1928). Cf. I.L.O., Studies and Reports, Series C, No. 18: *Employment Exchanges. An International Study of Placing Activities* (Geneva, 1933).

an agency of which he had little, if any, direct experience, and from which he expected limited service in recruiting workers. To the non-industrial population of most countries, the employment offices were looked upon as something frequented only by the destitute unemployed. Employment service officials often took a narrow view of their responsibilities and were content to register job seekers without helping them to find suitable jobs. Their work was somewhat narrow, and their experience limited. The basic methods of matching men and jobs were still being worked out. Funds were scarce and almost everywhere the premises and material equipment of the local offices were inadequate, even for the purpose of meeting the relatively simple demands then made upon them. The activities of the service, although gradually becoming less dominated by the wholly negative emphasis of the worst years of the depression (largely as a result of expanding labour requirements and skill shortages in heavy industries in a number of countries), were still too much centred on the relief of unemployment rather than the finding of suitable employment. All this was perhaps inevitable. Pre-war economic conditions constituted the continuously limiting frontiers of employment; and the absence of full employment effectively prevented each national employment service from developing the positive side of its work.

The war of 1939-1945 gave fresh impetus to employment service development in many parts of the world. In belligerent and neutral countries alike, action was taken to build up or strengthen the public employment service so that it could play an effective part in meeting the manifold problems of organising employment for war purposes.

In countries where the public employment service was already well developed when the war began, such as the United Kingdom, wartime administrative reorganisation was directed largely towards expanding and improving the employment offices at the various levels and strengthening the links between them as necessary to meet urgent and changing manpower requirements. In countries which entered the war without a highly developed or well co-ordinated employment service (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States, for example), war demands led to the hasty building up, under difficult conditions, of a system of employment offices more capable of meeting an emergency employment situation. In continental Europe, the Nazi occupation was accompanied by extensive employment service reorganisation. The Nazi authorities attached vital importance to the existence in each occupied country of employment machinery co-ordinated with that of the German Reich. Wherever

possible, they took over the existing national employment service, modifying, extending and improving it as necessary for their own purposes; but in some cases (as in France and parts of Poland) double systems of employment offices were in operation — one run by the national authorities and the other directly by the German authorities. In either case, employment service work was linked up, by a variety of direct and indirect methods, with the highly developed employment service of the Third Reich, which had been made into the chief instrument of the Nazi scheme of manpower control and mobilisation. In non-belligerent European countries (Sweden and Switzerland) the employment service was extended or improved in response to war pressures on the employment market. Finally, during the war, employment services were organised in a number of countries which had taken little or no action in this direction in the past. Thus India put into operation, on a small scale, an experimental network of employment offices, with such encouraging results that the scheme is now undergoing rapid expansion. In China, keen interest was taken in the development of public employment service facilities, and employment service sections were set up within the social service centres of a number of localities, including Chungking, Kweilin, Hanyang, Kweiyang and Tsungyi. Among the Central and South American republics, war dislocations centred new attention on the lack of effective employment machinery. The employment service reorganisation begun in the Argentine Republic in 1943 marked the first bringing together of the employment offices of that country into a national system, and several other American countries, including Bolivia, Chile, Costa Rica and Venezuela, took limited action to develop employment service facilities either generally or in particular areas or for particular groups of workers. In parts of the Middle East and in certain British dependent territories, initial steps were taken in employment service organisation.

During the war, moreover, the tasks of the employment service increased in number and importance, particularly in the belligerent countries most actively engaged in military operations. During the various phases of manpower mobilisation for war, the employment service, often armed with extensive controls giving the employment offices an almost complete monopoly of the placement and redistribution of labour, was brought into contact with all kinds of people in all kinds of occupations. The character of the functions of the service underwent a far-reaching change. A cursory survey of the wartime tasks of the employment services of the active belligerent countries shows that their work shifted rapidly from routine duties connected with the registering and interviewing of the unemployed,

and with their eligibility for benefit or allowance, to duties connected with the efficient organisation of the human resources of the whole country for war purposes -- or, in other words, with employment organisation in the full employment conditions of the war economy. Their main duties became positive — that is, they related to the placing of people, the finding of men for jobs, rather than to the mere registering of unemployed job seekers. They extended beyond placement work as such, encompassing the planning of employment organisation in a wide sense.

Equally significant was the fact that the ramifications of wartime employment policy led the public employment service into quite new fields of action, in which it played a secondary but important part. In a number of countries, machinery built up around the employment offices undertook such tasks as the general supervision of labour utilisation within factories and the organisation of welfare outside the factories, primarily for workers transferred away from their homes. Moreover, the employment offices of many countries became contributory agencies in the formulation of national, regional and community policy in such fields as contract distribution and termination, production priorities, plant construction, the location of industry, housing, the distribution of raw materials and parts, food, health care, international migration, and various social services (restaurants, nurseries, schools, etc.). While it was not the responsibility of the employment service itself to take action in such fields, it was its responsibility to call attention to the way in which the employment situation affected, or would be affected by, policy on these questions, to give its advice on solutions, and to provide any other assistance within its power.

Finally, as a result of improved and more systematic wartime machinery for consulting employers' and workers' organisations and of the greater direct participation by these groups in employment service work (*e.g.*, in appeals machinery), the employment service strengthened its practical contacts with the day-to-day economic life of the community and was able to pursue a wiser and more realistic course. This was an important factor in its ability to administer manpower programmes of unprecedented scope and involving direct and indirect restrictions on individual employers and workers in all or many industries and occupations.

Anticipation of the magnitude and difficulties of manpower redistribution during the transition from war to peace influenced most of the countries which had made the greatest gains in employment service organisation during the war to plan to continue an effective

employment service in peacetime. Foreseeing the vast redistribution of the working population which would have to take place, they realised that the employment service must remain the focal point of manpower organisation in order to meet the technical needs of an economy undergoing reconversion as well as the human needs of demobilised service personnel and displaced war workers. Moreover, from a longer-term standpoint, emphasis on full employment planning has been accompanied by a re-examination of the machinery for organising the employment market, and in particular by a recognition of the key position of the employment service in this machinery. These two points of view were given expression at the 26th Session of the International Labour Conference in Philadelphia in 1944. The Conference adopted the Employment Service Recommendation, 1944, which defines the task of the service in broad terms, and the Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944, which sets forth principles and methods of employment organisation applicable during the transition period, including some which are of a long-term character.

The transition to peace has already included fruitful efforts in many countries to strengthen the employment service so that it may fulfil the more positive functions required of it in the post-war economy. An outstanding example is the New Zealand Employment Act of 1945, which provides for the setting up of a National Employment Service, under a Minister for Employment, for the specific purpose of "promoting and maintaining full employment". The White Paper on *Full Employment in Australia* stated that "an efficient Australia-wide employment service is an essential instrument of a full employment policy" and that the Government was establishing a Commonwealth Employment Service in the Department of Labour and National Service on the general lines of the Employment Service Recommendation of the International Labour Conference; the new Employment Service was given a statutory basis by the Re-establishment and Employment Act, No. 11 of 1945, assented to on 28 June 1945. Canada has turned its expanded wartime Employment and Selective Service system into a National Employment Service, operated by the Dominion Government. The Government of the United Kingdom plans to continue to improve and strengthen its network of employment exchanges, welding them into an effective national employment service able to bear a large part of the long-term reconstruction work. In the United States, the Employment Service was subjected to many conflicting pressures concerning the desirability of continued Federal operation through the transition

period (*i.e.*, until June 1947, as proposed by the President) or of almost immediate return to State operation with Federal subsidy; the final decision has been to return the Service to a Federal-State basis in November 1946. On the whole, it is widely recognised that the Service must be kept at a high level of strength and efficiency in all parts of the country. China, Egypt, India, Iran, Palestine, Turkey and a number of the Latin American countries are persisting in their efforts to set in motion employment services adapted to their special needs.

In Europe, at the conclusion of hostilities, the Government of almost every liberated country took immediate action to re-establish the country's employment service on a sound basis and to define its functions positively so as to accord with the urgent needs of immediate and long-term reconstruction and economic programmes. This involved not only changes in the organisational network but an entirely new concept of the role of the service. As an official of the Czechoslovak Ministry of Social Welfare pointed out, the employment offices had become one of the most hated symbols of German exploitation and it was thus a very delicate task to bring a new spirit into the employment service and to create a favourable public attitude towards it. Nevertheless, by the middle of 1946, the priority given to solving manpower problems throughout Europe had resulted in noteworthy efforts to reorient and strengthen the needed administrative machinery — the employment service. It might be added that in a number of these countries wider planning of industry on a national basis has not only broadened the functions of the employment service as a means of achieving economic goals but has led to several interesting experiments in employment service organisation and methods of work, which may have far-reaching and lasting results.

The last few decades have thus seen rapid progress in employment service organisation. National laws and regulations have multiplied rapidly from the time when Great Britain and several other European countries first pioneered with the creation of an integrated network of public employment offices. Today, the number of countries without some form of public employment service is very small indeed. Appendix II to this Report provides a brief general survey of the national systems now in force, so far as material is currently available to the International Labour Office. The following chapters in the body of the Report illustrate, on the basis of national law and practice, various aspects of employment service organi-

sation, in order to substantiate the draft Questionnaire which provides the conclusion of the Report as a whole.

The present situation is challenging. The growing recognition in all parts of the world of the need for an employment policy, and of the importance of a strong employment service for applying this policy, provides a firm basis for the belief that the experience gained before and during this last war will not be lost but will be used fully in adapting each national service to the requirements of the post-war economy. Mistakes have admittedly been made. The prejudices of the past and those which have arisen from war manpower controls have not been wiped out. Yet there can be no question but that employment services have been greatly strengthened. They have won a broader basis in industrial life, in community life and in public confidence. Organisationally, the national employment services have become more mature and better adapted to the varying needs of the employment market, nationally and locally. Each local office is becoming better equipped, to use the phrase of the late President Roosevelt, to serve as the "corner grocery store" of a post-war employment market built up to assist in the vital and urgent task of full employment planning. It is essential, however, to plan the adaptation of their organisation and activities to the changed conditions which have followed the end of the war. The thoroughness and success with which this is done will determine the limits of the area within which the employment service can serve employers, workers and the public in the post-war economy.

CHAPTER II

OBJECT OF THE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

The general object of an employment service is to bring together employers needing workers and workers seeking employment in such a way that the employers will find suitable workers and the workers will find the jobs best suited to their qualifications and tastes as rapidly as possible. The terms in which this object is stated, however, may differ in accordance with the social and economic aims of the economy within which the employment service carries on its work.

Plans to make possible the full employment of men and women on useful work directed towards raising living standards have become an accepted objective of Governments throughout the world. It is recognised that their effective application requires the existence of a positive policy of employment organisation. Even when jobs are plentiful, workers may be without suitable employment and employers without suitable workers. The employment service is the central machinery for assuring that the available jobs are filled by the available workers within the frame of the national programme for promoting maximum production of the goods and services needed for a better life. The object of the service in the post-war economy was therefore set forth in the Employment Service Recommendation, 1944, in the following terms:

The essential duty of the employment service should be to ensure, in co-operation with other public and private bodies concerned, the best possible organisation of industrial, agricultural and other employment as an integral part of the national programme for the full use of productive resources.

This definition of the object of the employment service is broadly conceived. It is based on the view that the employment service has a vital part to play in the post-war world and that its functions must be restated in terms of its expanding responsibilities.

In the past, the object of the employment service was more limited, primarily because national social and economic plans for full employment were either non-existent or limited in scope. In almost every country, the national employment service grew up in close association with unemployment insurance and measures for the relief of unemployment. The rise of unemployment in industrialised countries produced unemployment insurance and employment offices

as methods of providing organised help for unemployed workers; in practice, the two systems developed side by side for many years. This was logical, and indeed inevitable, but it tended to limit the definition of the object of the employment service and the contribution it could make in the national economy. The war engendered a far broader conception of the role of the employment service by showing its potentialities within an economy where there were more jobs than men and where the primary task was to bring available workers and available jobs together expeditiously. The employment service was compelled to take the initiative in finding suitable jobs for workers and suitable workers for employers. It was, often for the first time, in a position to concentrate on activities directly concerned with the promotion of employment.

The problem for the peacetime economy is to maintain this wider and more constructive definition of general function. The idea of a passive employment service, preoccupied with routine matters connected with unemployment, is ceding place to that of an active service, preoccupied above all with helping to achieve the best possible distribution of workers within the economy. Current national policy appears to be in full harmony with the maintenance of this broader view of the object of the employment service in the peacetime economy.

In *Australia* the Government's policy, as stated in the 1945 White Paper on *Full Employment in Australia*, is that an efficient Australia-wide employment service, set up in accordance with the basic principles of the Employment Service Recommendation of the International Labour Conference, is "an essential instrument of a full employment policy". The Re-establishment and Employment Act, No. 11 of 1945, laid the statutory basis for a Commonwealth Employment Service, whose functions include that of providing "facilities to assist in bringing about and maintaining a high and stable level of employment throughout the Commonwealth".

In *Canada* the National Employment Service of the Unemployment Insurance Commission is considered of "essential importance" in the carrying out of the Government's employment policies. Steps are being taken to define its purpose more broadly than had been done at the time of its establishment on a national basis under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1940, and to link it more closely with the Government's plans and machinery for maintaining full employment. As the employers' representative on the Unemployment Insurance Commission said: "All parties in this country are committed to a policy of the largest possible degree of full employment . . . Now, while the employment service is not responsible

for this measure of full employment, its duty is to operate on as complete a scale as possible in order to bring this about."

The *New Zealand Employment Act*, No. 9 of 1945, which created the National Employment Service as "one of the Government's major post-war measures", states that "the principal function" of the Service shall be "to promote and maintain full employment at all times". In explaining the Act, the Leader of the Legislative Council emphasised that the difference between this employment measure and all previous employment measures was that past measures had been brought forward under the stress of existing unemployment. "This measure", he said, "is brought forward not only when we do not have unemployment, but when we have a surplus of employment. It is a provision to prevent the evil from overtaking us. All other measures were taken after the disaster had occurred. This measure is not only to act as a remedy but as a preventive." He stressed the fact that the functions of the new service had been most broadly defined because the service was experimental in that it would be operating to give practical effect to the right to work within the frame of general Government policy in the social and economic field.¹

The Government of the *United Kingdom* has accepted the view that the employment service of the Ministry of Labour will have new and important tasks in connection with the Government's policy of maintaining a high and stable level of employment; and the Government has also approved, in principle, the Employment Service Recommendation, 1944.

Policy in the *United States* is to broaden the goals of the Employment Service so that its work may be directed towards promoting full employment. The Chief of the Reports and Analysis Division of the Service stated in March 1946, for example:

One of our major responsibilities is our concern for maximum employment opportunities. Maximum employment will be a major goal in this country for decades to come. It will probably remain the dominating problem of this century... Now, the Employment Service creates no jobs. What part can it play in providing maximum employment? Some might answer, by the placement process. If we are content with that alone, we are still in the "matching-jobs-and-men" stage of the U.S.E.S. — that is, the period between 1937 and 1940. But we must go beyond that stage if we are to contribute to maximum employment. The U.S.E.S. can promote full employment because it is the only organisation that exists in a community that knows by virtue of its day-to-day work what is taking place in the local labour market in that community. The Employment Service can be of greatest help in doing its share for maximum employment by carrying out as conscientiously as possible its

¹ *New Zealand Parliamentary Debates, Legislative Council*, 31 Oct. 1945.

six-point programme... The new element consists of putting together what otherwise would be separate pieces in such a way as to make a pattern which is meaningful... An organisation, like a man, is judged not only by its performance, but by the star which sets its course... Perhaps we cannot reach our objective in 24 hours or in 24 weeks, but at least we must know where we are going, why we are going there and that we are going to do our utmost to get there... The problems of placement, service to veterans, counselling, of maximum employment, of good personnel practices, and of community employment planning are problems that are encountered everywhere. They are going to be met some way by some group or some Government agency. We are the agency that is equipped to find the solutions to many of these problems and can assist in handling most of them.¹

It is more difficult to draw specific examples of acceptance of this broader view of employment service function from the laws and regulations governing the reorganisation of the employment service in the liberated countries of Europe, since most of these measures are concerned above all with the mechanics, rather than the principles, of organisation. However, the *Belgian* Government, in its report on the Employment Service Recommendation, indicated its approval of the object of the service as defined in the Recommendation, and the most reliable information available indicates that that view is widely shared by those responsible for employment service reconstruction in other countries, including *Czechoslovakia*, *Hungary*, *Luxembourg*, the *Netherlands*, *Norway* and *Poland*. The *French* Government considers the manpower services of the Ministry of Labour the key instruments for implementing its post-war plans for employment, which are related directly to the production goals and needs of the nation. The *Bulgarian* Government has announced that measures are to be taken to expand and strengthen the employment service so as to increase its role in employment organisation and the economy as a whole. The *Czechoslovak* Government considers that the national mobilisation of labour is the main condition for the fulfilment of its Two-Year Plan, and that the proper equipment of the employment service and a redefinition of the character of its duties are the first essential in carrying out the plans for manpower mobilisation and redistribution.

There has also been a tendency among the Central and South American republics to define the purpose of the employment service in broader terms. This is evidenced in the *Argentine* employment service reorganisation, initiated under the Decree of July 1943; in the increased responsibilities vested in the *Chilean* employment service by the Decree of 19 January 1943; in the ratification by *Venezuela* of the Unemployment Convention, 1919, on 20 November 1944 and the duties assigned to its National Employment Service;

¹ DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR: *Employment Service Review*, Mar. 1946, pp. 4 and 21.

and in the *Bolivian* regulations concerning employment offices, dated 4 April 1945, made "in accordance with the Conventions and Recommendations of the International Labour Organisation".

Countries in process of organising an employment service, including other American republics and countries in the Far and Middle East, have not limited the object of the service in the laws and regulations governing its establishment. The Government of *India*, for example, takes a broad and far-sighted view of the purposes of the employment service in relation to the industrial development of the country.

In brief, there appears to be substantial and widespread support in national law and practice for a statement of the aims of the employment service in terms which would harmonise with the current emphasis on efforts to achieve full employment, higher productivity and output and rising standards of living. Economic aims have changed in the light of post-war opportunities; and the objectives of the employment service must change with them. Question 3 of the Questionnaire therefore requests the opinion of the Governments on the inclusion in the international regulations of a definition of the general object of an employment service in the economy. The proposed definition corresponds closely with that already accepted by the Conference in the Employment Service Recommendation, 1944. It reads as follows:

3. Do you consider that the international regulations should provide that the essential duty of the employment service should be to ensure, in co-operation where necessary with other public and private bodies concerned, the best possible organisation of industrial, agricultural and other employment as an integral part of the national programme for the maintenance of full employment and the development and use of productive resources?

CHAPTER III

GENERAL STRUCTURE OF THE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

The general structure of the employment service of any country derives primarily from the traditions and principles of administrative organisation of the country and from actual experience of their operation. It is also conditioned by the object of the service and the specific functions assigned to it, since the administrative machinery is merely a means to the end of efficient operation. Nevertheless, certain principles of structural organisation have been generally applicable in employment service development, whatever the country. These are suggested in the following paragraphs.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANISATION

National Organisational Basis

The Unemployment Convention, 1919, provides for the establishment of "a system of free public employment agencies under the control of a central authority". It thus emphasises the organisational principle that an employment service should be set up on a national basis under central supervision.

At the time this Convention was adopted, a great many national employment services were passing through their birthpangs or the initial stages of growth. A first essential was to provide means of co-ordinating the activities of the various local employment offices, which had often worked in isolation, and the activities of public offices with those of private employment agencies, which had most frequently operated as a law unto themselves. In addition, experience of manpower problems during the war of 1914-1918 had brought into sharp relief the increasingly national character of the employment market; and many countries realised that this aspect of employment would tend to become more pronounced with the progress of industrialisation. Moreover, since most countries lacked the complications of that federal structure which has created such serious employment service problems for a few countries, such as the United States, the organisation of the service on a central national basis was considered the logical administrative formula and accepted as such without question in many cases.

The principle of establishing the employment service on a national basis has lost none of its importance since 1919. Employment problems have tended to become more and more national in scope. This was particularly true during the war of 1939-1945 and the subsequent transition period in most countries. It cannot be expected that employment problems will become less comprehensive in character. In fact, the development of full employment planning on a national scale makes it inevitable that problems of labour supply and distribution will continue to have national dimensions. It follows that the employment service should be organised on a broad enough basis to meet national problems with national action.

The principle now receiving emphasis, therefore, is that of centralised co-ordination and supervision of employment service work to the extent necessary to facilitate an effective performance of the functions of the service in peacetime employment conditions. The lack of any central supervision and co-ordination of the employment service might lead, as it has in the past in certain countries, to the absence of any national view of the employment situation and trend and to a lack of basic harmony in the approach to employment organisation problems from one part of a country to another, which might have a seriously adverse effect on the whole employment situation. More positively, administrative organisation based on a national plan can, without stifling local initiative and experiment, promote the achievement of full employment by facilitating a ready responsiveness in the employment service to national needs as well as to the particular requirements of each of the various areas. In other words, as the American Federation of Labor has pointed out, a national system must supplement the local service. Even where, for practical reasons, employment service operations must be begun on a small scale, with offices set up only in a few centres of population, the principle of national supervision remains important. The organisation of a limited network of employment offices on a national basis, according to a national plan, provides a basis for growth which would be lacking if the offices were set up one by one and each left to operate as a separate unit under the control of the local authorities where it is situated.

This is not to suggest that there should be rigid centralised administration of the employment service. On the contrary, experience everywhere has shown the value of flexibility allowing for a marked degree of devolution of administrative responsibility in employment service operation. This is particularly true in times of complicated employment readjustment when the problems of some localities are bound to differ substantially from those of others. Moreover, in certain countries, the United States in particular, the federal struc-

ture of Government may make the continuance of a nationally operated employment service impossible or impracticable at the present time, though this does not prevent the operation of a service on a Federal-State basis with the extent of national supervision and co-ordination necessary for efficient work.¹

The trend of national law and practice has been distinctly in the direction of increasing acceptance of the principle of establishing the employment service on a national basis under the control of a central authority. *Australia*, which entered the war without a Commonwealth employment service of any kind and without effective placement services in most of the States, was forced to build up a centrally administered system during the war and, on the basis of this experience and in anticipation of post-war needs, has established a Commonwealth Employment Service, which will carry on its work on a national basis in co-operation with the States. In *Canada* the employment service was on a Dominion-Provincial basis until 1940, when it was placed on a national basis with the passage of the Unemployment Insurance Act in that year. *New Zealand's* employment service is being set up on a national basis. In *India* the employment exchange network is being developed according to a co-ordinated central plan worked out by the Labour Department of the Central Government. The *United States* entered the war with an employment service made up of 50 separate State and territorial employment services, whose operations were loosely co-ordinated by the Federal Government; soon after the entry of the United States into the war, the service was placed on a central national basis in order that it might operate with "speedy, uniform, effective action to meet rapidly changing needs". While the service has now been returned to State operation, an increased amount of Federal supervision of the work of the various State systems has been accepted.

In Europe, all the liberated countries have established or re-established employment services on a national basis under the control of a central authority, and in many cases, as in *Belgium*, *Czechoslovakia*, *France*, *Hungary*, the *Netherlands*, *Norway* and *Poland* this involves a greater degree of central supervision than existed before the war. In *Finland* the employment service was centralised under the Ministry of Communications and Public Works during the war. In *Sweden* the public employment service was centralised and brought under the national control of the State Employment Market Commission in the spring of 1940.

¹ The present position in the United States and in certain other federal countries is noted in the national monographs on employment service organisation in Appendix II.

In the *Argentine Republic* the reorganisation of the employment service undertaken in 1943 was aimed primarily at establishing a national service, to incorporate most of the existing free employment agencies and set up new offices, as required, as a part of a centrally operated system.

These examples suffice to indicate that a trend towards a nationally operated employment service, which existed before the war, was accelerated during the war and does not appear to have become less marked in the year following the end of hostilities, except where it is obscured or inoperative owing to special difficulties. It is interesting to note that even in Great Britain, where the employment exchanges have always operated under central control, there is a new emphasis on the "national employment service" rather than the "network of employment exchanges".

Thus, question 4 of the Questionnaire asks the opinion of the Governments in this matter. The question follows the language used in Article 2 of the Unemployment Convention, 1919, but is a little more strongly phrased to take account of the trend of national law and practice. It reads as follows:

4. Do you consider that the international regulations should stipulate that the employment service should be established on a national basis under the control of a central authority?

Regional Organisation

The organisation of an employment service on a national basis does not preclude the grant of a large measure of autonomy to regional employment offices. Most countries, in fact, have found it highly desirable to establish a strong network of regional offices, both as a practical administrative convenience and to permit the adaptation of employment service work to the varying needs of the different geographical areas of the country.

In some countries, as in *Germany* and *Great Britain*¹, regional organisation of the employment service was highly developed before the war. In Great Britain, for example, the regional offices have exercised considerable authority and borne a large share of the administrative burden of employment exchange operation for many years. In a number of additional countries, the trend towards structural centralisation of employment service work, accelerated as it was by the war of 1939-1945, has been accompanied by a continuing

¹ Reference is made in most of the chapters of this Report to Great Britain and not to the United Kingdom, because, as explained in the monograph in Appendix II, Northern Ireland has its own system of employment exchanges.

devolution of responsibility to the regional level. In fact, a feature of wartime administrative change was the strengthening of the regional unit of many national employment services in terms both of organisation and of responsibilities (the two necessarily going hand in hand). This was the case, for example, in most continental European countries during the occupation and following liberation, in *Canada* and the *United States*, and in *Australia* and *New Zealand*. In these countries, the regional offices have been retained and strengthened as a permanent part of the employment service machinery.

In *Great Britain* there are 11 regional offices, each under a regional controller of the Ministry of Labour. In the main, the regional boundaries conform to the standard regional boundaries laid down as a pattern for Government departments by the Regional Organisation Committee of the Treasury. The regional offices exercise considerable authority and bear a very large share of the administrative burden of the employment service. The *United States* Employment Service works through 12 regional offices, each under a regional director; during the war, the regions became significant units of operation in the initiation of manpower policy as well as in its interpretation and application. The regions are the same as the regional units used by the Social Security Board, but they do not correspond with the regional offices used at present by other Government agencies. The States constitute the basic units of employment service work; it is, in fact, at this level that most of the administrative work is done under the present Federal-State set-up. *Canada's* National Employment Service works through five regional offices; two of these coincide with the provincial structure (Quebec and Ontario), while each of the others overlaps the areas of several provinces. In *Australia* the State was the regional unit under the wartime National Service Office structure, and remains a part of the State-decentralised Commonwealth Employment Service, with a State headquarters office of the Service operating between the Commonwealth headquarters and the district offices of this Service. In addition, some of the States (*e.g.*, Queensland) have or plan to have a State system of employment facilities with the service organised and co-ordinated on a State basis, and working closely with the Commonwealth Employment Service. In *India* the provinces will serve as the regional units of the employment service. *New Zealand's* district manpower offices were grouped around three regional offices (in Christchurch, Auckland and Wellington), and these offices are to form a basic part of the structure of the National Employment Service. *Sweden's* regional unit is the province; provincial labour boards are set up (in

mid-1946 there were 25) to direct, under the central State Employment Market Commission, the work of the employment offices within each province. *Denmark* and *Norway* use the county unit for employment service administration, while *Finland's* service operates through 17 district offices. In *Switzerland* the canton is the basic regional administrative unit for the employment service. In *Belgium* the regions used for employment service purposes (which were revised territorially at the end of 1944) are the same as those used for unemployment assistance purposes, since both functions are administered by the same central office (*Fond provisoire de soutien des chômeurs involontaires*). In *Czechoslovakia*, provincial labour offices have been set up for Bohemia and Moravia in Prague and Brno. In *France* the reorganised employment (or manpower) service included a regional manpower service until April 1946, when the regional offices were abolished, primarily for internal political reasons, but each department has a departmental labour and manpower office, which includes a manpower service, corresponding to the regional employment service unit in other countries.¹ *Italy's* service includes 13 regional offices and a provincial office in each province, responsible for the work of the local offices of the province. *Bulgaria's* employment offices follow the lines of the labour inspection districts, with one office in each such area except the 6 smallest ones. *Chile* also uses the labour inspection areas, which coincide with the provincial structure of the country.

Since the establishment of district or regional offices as operating units between the central headquarters of the service and the local employment offices is above all a matter of administrative convenience in each country, it is difficult to identify any common principles which govern national decisions as to what shall constitute a region for employment service purposes. In the first place, the regions differ considerably in size and shape. Thus, there are 11 regions in a small country like *Great Britain* and there are only 12 and 5 respectively in much larger countries like *Canada* and the *United States* (though in the latter country it is true that under the present Federal-State structure, the State office corresponds more nearly than the regional office to the regional unit of other countries). In some cases, the regions follow the general pattern of regional organisation of other Government departments or agencies, and in particular of the intermediate Governments; but this logical practice is by no means always

¹ The departmental directorates of labour and manpower constitute the real nucleus of the entire organisational structure of the employment service. They provide a focal point for the integration of action on all kinds of labour and manpower questions and thus facilitate the employment service work proper by broadening the contacts of the service with the administration of measures affecting wages, conditions of work, safety and factory inspection, etc.

followed. This is a particularly important point, however, and one which is now receiving considerable attention in *Great Britain*, the *United States* and certain countries in continental *Europe*. It is important to the employment service that all Government departments should work within the same regional frontiers. For example, the application of industrial location policy and other full employment measures requires above all close co-operation at the regional level among Government departments, including the employment service; speedy service to employers on employment questions often depends on the same kind of regional intergovernmental co-ordination; and standard regional boundaries are also required for the purpose of providing a common denominator for the collection and use of statistical material. In theory, moreover, the frontiers of the regions may be decided so that they correspond to logical employment market areas, that is, to the geographical make-up of the supply of and demand for workers and so that the regional work is organised within a territorial area which provides the greatest opportunities for constructive employment service work. This is likewise of considerable significance, since the regional office almost always constitutes a pivotal part of each service's clearance arrangements. In practice, however, it is difficult to cite examples of countries in which the original organisation may be said to coincide with these broader aspects of the structure of the national employment market. As a general rule, the regional units tend to be practical from an administrative standpoint. This may be said to be a primary principle governing their boundaries, although it too is often disregarded in practice. Finally, it should be noted that no boundaries are definitive. Continuing changes in industrial requirements, and thus in the employment market, necessitate corresponding revisions in regional organisation; and what was administratively desirable and practical 25 years ago may not be so today. Thus in several countries systematic provision has been made for reconsideration of the regional employment service organisation. Already since the end of the war in 1945, the changed post-war distribution of industry and of the labour force has led to a redistribution of the territory covered by the regional employment offices in a few countries. In several other countries, a need for revision of the regional structure is recognised, in order to integrate the employment service more closely with the general pattern of administration and the existing classification of economic activity.¹

¹ In *Great Britain*, for example, it is considered that one of the most obvious ways to facilitate inter-departmental co-operation at the regional level is for all departments with a regional organisation to adopt the same regional boundaries and use the same towns as regional headquarters. The Government,
(Footnote continued overleaf)

Regardless of the wide differences in the geographical coverage of the regional office and of the numerous historical, economic and other reasons therefor, the main purposes of such offices tend to be more nearly comparable from one country to another. They may be summarised, briefly, as follows: to provide the necessary liaison between the headquarters and the local offices of the service; to deputise for the headquarters of the service in any important administrative matters; to interpret national policy in terms of the situation and needs of the particular region; to supervise and co-ordinate the administration of the local offices within the region and to provide the necessary clearance arrangements within the region; and to act as a canalising agency for the flow of information and other employment service data from the local to the central office and *vice versa*. Clearly, the precise administrative responsibilities of the regional offices vary considerably from one country to another according to employment market needs and organisational traditions. But in most countries, *e.g.*, *Great Britain* and *Sweden*, the tendency has increasingly been to strengthen the regional units.

Since the regional offices constitute the pivotal intermediate operating unit of the employment service, it is essential that their place in the administrative structure should be clearly defined. The first question that arises in this connection is whether the regional office should be responsible directly to the central headquarters of the service; the second is whether the local offices should be directly responsible to the regional office covering their area of operation. So far as the first of these is concerned, national policy and practice show almost unanimous acceptance of the principle that the regional offices must be controlled by, and directly responsible to, the central headquarters of the service. In view of their duties as administrative

through a Regional Organisation Committee (which consists of official representatives from the departments primarily concerned, under a Treasury chairman) has now worked out approved regional boundaries and regional headquarter towns, which have been communicated by the Treasury to Government departments for general adoption. Certain deviations have been permitted, but only if they are demonstrated to the satisfaction of the Regional Organisation Committee to be essential for efficient administration. Strict regard is had to the fact that every substantial deviation allowed may well lead to undesirable administrative complications, *e.g.*, lack of uniformity in statistics or duplication of work where a project concerns only one region of one department, but two or more regions of another. It is, of course, recognised that there must be a few clear cases where deviations are justifiable, *e.g.*, the General Post Office operates through 8 instead of the standard 11 regions, its boundaries being widely different from the standard as they are determined by operational considerations which have little or no connection with local government administrative areas. In *France* it is the policy of the Ministry of Labour to work through the same intermediate units as other Government departments, particularly those responsible for economic planning.

deputies for headquarters, the regional units are as a rule so organised that they are imbued with a more national outlook than would be possible were they responsible, in whole or in part, to authorities within the region. Exception to this view has been expressed in countries, particularly federal countries (the *United States*, for example), in which the regional organisation is often looked upon with a certain amount of suspicion by other units of government. So far as the second question is concerned, there is likewise widespread agreement that, where regional offices have been established, the local offices should be directly responsible to them. This administrative alignment need not, however, cut off the contact of any given local office with the central headquarters of the service; it merely provides an orderly and uniform channel of contact. *Great Britain* provides an example of a successful relationship which can be constructed from this basis; the regional controllers exercise close control of the operations of the local offices, and the local offices feel perfectly free to discuss with the regional office questions of principle which may merit reference by the controller to headquarters.

The main questions of regional structure on which the advice of the Governments is requested relate to the principle of establishing regional offices as an integral part of national employment service machinery, and the relationship of such offices to the central headquarters and local offices respectively. Question 5 of the Questionnaire therefore reads as follows:

5. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for the establishment of regional employment service offices as units between the central headquarters of the service and the local employment offices?*

(b) *If so, do you consider*

(i) *that the regional offices should be responsible directly to the central headquarters of the employment service?*

and

(ii) *that the local employment offices should be directly responsible to the regional offices?*

Network of Local Employment Offices

Each local employment office inevitably constitutes the testing ground of the employment service as a whole. It is to this office that individual employers and workers come, and in it their opinion of the employment service is formed. It is this office which develops the relations of the employment service with the people and the

economies of each community. Thus, since no employment service can be stronger than its weakest link, the efficient organisation of each local office becomes a vital question of employment service structure.

As at the regional level, the local office organisation tends to evolve in terms of diverse national needs and administrative patterns; therefore the international regulations must no doubt be limited to specifying a few general principles which national experience has shown to be essential to successful local office structure.

The first of these may be said to be the setting up of local offices according to an integrated national plan, so that the network of offices may correspond to the requirements of employment market organisation. It has frequently happened, particularly when public employment service was in its earliest stages, that local offices have been set up somewhat at random, located in "centres of population" (which are not always the same as the places where employers are seeking workers and workers jobs), and left to operate in comparative isolation. This practice leads to future difficulties as well as present problems. Each local office has a logical administrative place in the employment service structure; and the solution of the problems involved may be facilitated if the criteria for establishing these offices are worked out on the basis of a national or regional plan. Moreover, each office should be a logical subdivision of the national employment market. Its work should cover an area which forms some kind of a unit from the standpoint of placement needs and opportunities and other employment organisation activities such as the collection of employment market information.

In the second place, the local offices should be adequate in number to serve each geographical area of the country. In some countries, the employment service already includes enough local offices to meet current employment market problems; this is the case in *Great Britain*, in which the number of employment offices has undergone little change for many years, and it was also the case in certain European countries before the war. Most countries, however, including the other countries of the *British Commonwealth*, the *United States* and, of course, the many countries (*e.g., China, India, Turkey and Venezuela*) now in process of organising an employment service, still lack a sufficient number of employment offices. Many localities are either not served by an employment office or have extremely restricted access to such facilities. No rule can govern the number of employment offices needed per square mile per head of population. This will vary considerably with the general

social and economic composition of the area, and in particular with the character of the local employment market. The size of the offices, which varies with many different factors, will also affect the number required. A large office in one place may be able to serve thousands of people in a relatively small geographical area, while a small office in another area may serve fewer people but cover far more territory. Population alone is not an adequate standard for deciding the boundaries for the employment offices or for deciding whether a full-time or a part-time office is needed. The *United States* Employment Service suggests, however, that population is a good general criterion for indicating employment service needs and that if a community has a population of 10,000 or more it can be assumed, as a rule, that it needs an employment office; a number of European countries also use a population yardstick in measuring the need for full-time employment offices, but the figure considered to justify the setting up of a local office is in all cases much smaller than that suggested in the United States. The number and distribution of job opportunities and of the labour force also affects the need for local offices within any given area.

In every country, moreover, there are areas in which the establishment of a full-time employment office can hardly be justified according to current employment service standards but which clearly require some form of employment office coverage. Thus, most countries include within their local network of employment service facilities a variety of special arrangements to meet the needs of sparsely populated areas or isolated communities of one kind or another or particular groups of employers and workers, in order to ensure that people in every part of the country have access to at least partial service. In *Great Britain*, for example, there are 177 branch employment offices and 199 local agencies. The former are small offices, which usually serve rural areas and are under a part-time manager required to give at least 24 hours a week to employment service work, while the latter are outposts in rural areas staffed on a part-time basis and with very limited functions, most of which are connected with administering the agricultural unemployment insurance scheme. *Canada* makes use of numerous suboffices, and *Australia's* service includes some 500 part-time employment agencies in the smaller country towns. In the *United States* part-time employment service work is done through what are known as "itinerant points", of which there are now about 2,000, set up in areas not considered to require a full-time office; these part-time offices are staffed by travelling employment service personnel who are available

in the itinerant offices for one or two days a week. In addition, there are arrangements for special travelling staff to assist in recruiting migratory labour for seasonal employment, *e.g.*, crop harvesting. The services in the *Scandinavian* countries appoint local employment agents, whose employment service work is on a part-time basis but who perform, as a rule, other tasks in the field of labour and social administration. In *India* it is planned to have subregional employment exchanges and to attach to each one of these mobile sections which will tour the areas concerned and provide at least partial service to the residents. The need for travelling employment service staff has also been felt in a good many *Latin American* countries. Arrangements for part-time or mobile service of these kinds are particularly useful in countries now in process of developing their network of local employment offices and they are often the only feasible way of ensuring any service at all in sparsely populated rural areas or small isolated industrial or mining communities in any country. It is difficult, however, to provide a full range of service to residents of such areas through such arrangements. There is always a danger that the work will be substandard in quality or too limited in kind to meet all the varying needs that may arise. Some countries have therefore taken special precautions to keep their part-time arrangements under continuous supervision and review, with a view to ensuring that any defects are remedied so far as practical difficulties (such as finance and travel facilities) permit and that the residents of these special areas are given as adequate service in every respect as can be provided.

In the third place the local offices should be conveniently located from the standpoint of those who use, or who should be encouraged to use, their facilities. This, too, raises difficult practical problems within any country. Is it better, for example, to try to situate the office near the employers' undertakings or near the workers' homes? Or should the office be located in the shopping centre of the town? What is a reasonable travelling distance for the inhabitants of any employment office area? Clearly this is not a question of mileage alone but of available transport facilities and community habits (as, for example, the distances customarily travelled for other purposes, such as banking, marketing, shopping, health care or recreation). To all such questions, again, the answer must be pragmatic. But the principle to be emphasised is that the location of the local offices must be such as to make it as easy as possible for employers seeking labour and workers seeking jobs to use their facilities. This principle is widely accepted by the various national employment services, even though they may be unable to apply it fully.

It thus appears that in most countries, while guiding criteria for meeting the needs of local areas by the employment service can be worked out on the basis of experience and may be helpful, the test of adequacy as regards the number of employment offices, their respective frontiers, and whether they should be on a full or a part-time basis, must be sought above all in the standard of service rendered in any given area. If the quality and efficiency of the work performed falls below the standard achieved in nearby areas, then analysis or re-examination of the service provided might indicate a need for revision of the local placement machinery. If the office is unable to carry out at least a basic programme of employment service work or if the office's facilities are little used, it may safely be concluded that its work load is too heavy or that it is attempting to cover too wide a geographical area or that it is not providing the range of service needed in the area in which it is situated. This leads up to the next and last point.

National experience has shown the desirability of keeping the number and location of local employment offices under continuous revision. Such factors as industrialisation, changes in the character and distribution of industry, transportation developments, mechanisation of agriculture, and shifts in the volume and distribution of the working population, cause changes in the employment market which should be reflected in the local office organisation of the employment service, irrespective of the stage of development of the service. In some cases, administrative consolidation or contraction of the local offices may be needed in areas of decreasing industrial activity; in other cases, expansion of the offices becomes essential. Some of these changes occur slowly but others take place with great rapidity. It would therefore appear to be highly desirable to keep under scrutiny the distribution of the local offices and to have a regular procedure for making the revisions which prove necessary in order to maintain an integrated network of local offices, responsive to changing economic requirements and to the changing needs of job seekers.¹

¹ The headquarters of the *Canadian* employment service stresses the need for strengthening the local office network as a continuing process, with a high degree of flexibility in the opening of additional offices for general or specific purposes. The local office areas were reviewed during 1945, and, so far as possible, changes were made so that their boundaries would conform with the census divisions instead of the electoral districts; four of the five regions are now organised on this basis, which was considered advisable so that the population and employment statistics of the Dominion Bureau of Statistics could be used for comparative statistical information of local offices. The *United States* Employment Service headquarters has circulated a Field Instruction stating that "regional directors are responsible for taking such action as may be necessary to assure that State directors periodically review the needs of smaller communities for services rendered by the U.S.E.S., and make such adjustments in type and number of offices as may be warranted in the light of the above criteria" (Field Instruction No. 952, 8 Aug. 1946).

Question 6 of the Questionnaire is designed to elicit the view of the Governments on the above questions of principle. It reads as follows:

6. Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for an integrated network of local employment offices, adequate in number to serve each geographical area of the country, conveniently located from the standpoint of the employers and workers, and revised from time to time to take account of changes in the distribution of economic activity and of the working population?

POSSIBLE METHODS OF NATIONAL CO-ORDINATION

The basic structure of the employment service is thus composed of three main parts — the central headquarters, the regional offices, and the local offices. While this is a simplified version of the machinery of many countries (excluding, for example, such additional operating units as district or area offices set up between the regional and the local office), it includes the essential elements common to the great majority of existing national employment services. One of the primary administrative problems is to develop methods of securing close co-ordination of the offices at these three levels of operation, national, regional and local. This is a task for the central headquarters of the service.

Aside from financial arrangements, mentioned in the following section of this chapter, there are a variety of possible methods of co-ordinating employment service administration from the headquarters to the local office. Of these methods four seem to be most widely applied in the different countries: (1) national administrative instructions; (2) national inspection; (3) uniform reporting procedures; and (4) formal and informal staff conferences and interchange of staff.

Among the most elementary and important measures of co-ordination is the use of written circulars of administrative instructions governing the day-to-day practice and administration of the regional and local offices. Where the employment service is organised on a national basis, these circulars are drawn up by the central headquarters staff. This may be and often is done in consultation with regional and/or local office personnel, but the final decisions on their drafting and contents lie with the headquarters. The instructions are then circulated to the regional offices and to the local offices. The regional and local offices are under obligation to follow the instruc-

tions to the best of their ability. The instructions form a set of administrative standards, conceived and applied on a national scale, which ensure a minimum basic uniformity in the various regional and local offices. In substance, the instructions will vary from the simplest administrative detail (such as the ordering of stationery), to the prescription of specified forms for the collection of information, registration, employers' orders, or other matters, and will also deal with the attitude to be taken by the offices on the highest questions of policy. Where the employment service is not organised on a national basis, it may be more difficult to draft and apply national administrative instructions aimed at ensuring top-to-bottom administrative co-ordination. This was pre-war experience in *Canada* and the *United States*. In the latter country, before May 1941, when the United States Employment Service was organised on a Federal-State basis, the various State employment services were not required to transmit to the local offices the instructions and policy memoranda sent from the Federal Bureau of Employment Security, the central agency responsible for the co-ordination of the Service. Any employment service that lacks the simple but basic co-ordinating channel provided by national policy and procedural instructions is unable to work as a unified whole.

A second method of assuring administrative co-ordination on a national scale is the inspection process. In a great many countries, including federal as well as non-federal countries, the function of inspecting employment service work is specifically assigned to the central national authority by the legislation and regulations concerning the employment service. Frequently, as in *Great Britain*, the actual inspection of the employment offices is carried out by the regional offices of the service, and headquarters inspection is confined to investigations and surveys of a special nature.¹ In other cases, much of the inspection work is done by national inspection staff attached to the headquarters staff. In the *United States*, for example, inspection is carried out by a Federal field service, the staff of which works in co-operation with the regional offices and through the regional offices with State offices; the field service is responsible for representing State and local viewpoints at headquarters and determining what national employment service policies and programmes are being effectively administered through the local

¹ This arrangement is based on two assumptions, which would not be valid for a number of countries: (1) that there are a sufficient number of employment offices within the region to set a standard for judging the efficiency of a given local office; and (2) that the regional office inspectors are trained within the employment service and are specialists in employment office work at the various levels.

offices.¹ The *Canadian* Employment Service has regional travelling supervisors, working from the regional office according to national standards incorporated in an "Inspection Guide" and a "Schedule of Inspection", to facilitate more uniform evaluation of local office operation. In *France* employment service supervision is carried out by the general inspector, assisted by a divisional inspector specialising in manpower questions and by 12 divisional inspectors assigned to the various regions of the country. On each inspection visit, a report is drawn up to indicate and evaluate employment office operations in some detail.

A third method is that of uniform reporting procedures, prescribed for the regional and local offices by the headquarters of the service. The various employment offices are required to furnish headquarters with regular reports, on a uniform basis, describing their organisation and work. Such a national system of periodic reporting on employment office operations is of great value in ensuring administrative co-ordination and in checking on the application of policy throughout the service.

A fourth method of securing co-ordination is by direct contacts of headquarters staff with regional and local office personnel. These contacts may be formal or informal. They often take the form of regular and special conferences of employment office managers held at headquarters or in the region to clarify general policy or practice or to deal with particular questions. *Canada, Great Britain, Sweden* and the *United States* have made extensive use of staff conferences of all kinds as a means of promoting unified employment service work. Such conferences are of special importance in European countries where, following a purge of collaborationists from the employment offices at all levels, an entirely new outlook has to be engendered throughout the service. In *Czechoslovakia* and *France* conferences of employment service personnel have been held in order to unify the administration of the service and direct it towards the new national goals in the spirit of the Government's programmes. In addition, systematic arrangements for the interchange of staff for the purpose of enabling them to acquire direct experience at the various levels of administration have been found to be of great practical use in a number of countries, particularly those with a limited cadre of experienced staff. They are also considered to foster

¹ The United States Employment Service plans an extended programme of national evaluation surveys of local office operation, carried out by crews of the headquarters field service, with the addition of one regional and one State employment service official selected from the region or State where operations are being evaluated.

a national outlook within the service which is helpful in ensuring unified administration.

Methods of national co-ordination of employment service work are bound to vary from one country to another, and it is possible that Governments with practical experience of other methods than those mentioned here may wish to suggest additional measures of administrative co-ordination which they would consider necessary in any national employment service structure and appropriate for inclusion in the international regulations.

In countries with large and highly diversified regions, like *Canada*, *India* and the *United States*, the need for flexibility in administration is very great. In consequence, special arrangements may be needed to ensure that co-operation aimed at obtaining a basic minimum of central uniformity does not impede any given regional office from adapting its work closely to the specific needs of the region. These arrangements provide, as a rule, for leaving considerable discretion to the regional offices to interpret national policy and instructions in terms of their own requirements, but retain the essentials of over-all co-ordination of the regional offices on a national basis.

In view of the importance of central administrative co-ordination in the efficient operation of any national employment service, Governments are consulted on the following point:

7. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for national administrative instructions to be issued by the headquarters of the employment service and for national inspection of the employment service in order to secure co-ordination of the regional and local offices?*

(b) *What other methods, if any, do you suggest as useful and appropriate for this purpose?*

PERSONNEL, MATERIAL ARRANGEMENTS AND FINANCE

There are three further questions of particular importance in the employment service organisation of any country — personnel, material arrangements, and finance. Each of these questions is of national scope and significance. The experience of every country has shown that much of the success of the work of the employment service depends directly on the way in which these questions are approached.

The staffing of the employment service is a problem of first importance in every country with such a service, regardless of its stage of development. The calibre of the personnel of the service deter-

mines in large measure the extent to which the confidence of the employer, the worker and the community can be won and held. Many of the criticisms levelled against an employment service may be traced to the incompetence or inexperience of the staff responsible for carrying out employment organisation policies which in themselves have been widely accepted. Before the war, almost every national employment service was handicapped by serious problems of personnel. As a rule, there were wide variations in personnel standards and in the quality of local office staff; salaries tended to be low, and conditions of employment unattractive. The result was relatively low calibre staff, taking little serious interest in employment service work as a professional career. During the war, of course, the problems of staffing were particularly acute and difficult to solve, but their importance was more fully realised, and in many countries the total staff expanded in number and to some extent improved in quality.

The post-war period provides an opportunity of analysing the difficulties, of inaugurating an improved system of personnel administration for the employment service, and of appreciating at full value the extent to which the staff of the service make up the spirit and core of the whole structure. The liberated countries, faced with the need to purge their personnel of collaborationists, have had to meet special difficulties, but at the same time they have had an opportunity to benefit from the experience of other countries and to try to develop a new trained employment service staff, qualified to carry out broader responsibilities. In *France*, for example, it is considered that the fundamental task of employment service reorganisation to enable it to carry out its expanded responsibilities is that of equipping it with more and better staff, on whom will depend the entire success or failure of the service's efforts to plan the organisation and distribution of manpower in conformity with economic requirements. The *Czechoslovak* Ministry of Social Welfare takes the same view and regards the proper staffing of the employment offices as a prerequisite for enabling them to carry out the national mobilisation of labour in a democratic way. In many other countries as well, there is a significantly increased recognition of the close inter-relationship between effective employment service work and efficient employment service staff. The report of the *Canadian* Unemployment Insurance Commission for the fiscal year ended 31 March 1945 states, for example: "It is recognised that the employment service will be what the staff makes it, and particularly after the rigid controls of the war have been eased or withdrawn."

National experience indicates certain principles of employment service personnel policy. In the first place, most countries emphasise

that the total staff of the service and of each office within the service should be numerically strong enough for the tasks it has to perform. If offices are understaffed the result is that each member of the staff, from top to bottom, is overburdened, the atmosphere of the office becomes mechanical and hurried, and employers and workers alike are antagonised and feel their individual needs are neglected. In the second place, the staff engaged on each specialised type of work should be numerous enough to avoid frequent inter-office transfers from one type of work to another and to permit each group to carry out, develop and improve its own work. Clearly, there must be enough flexibility to allow transfers in emergencies, but it should not be necessary to tolerate such practices as, for example, the transfer of employment service staff to meet a rush of unemployment claims work. In the third place, it has been found that salaries and conditions of employment and promotion within the employment service must be based on careful and uniform classifications and must be such as to attract and retain persons with the requisite capacities. As in many branches of government, the development of employment service work has sometimes been hampered by underpayment of staff.¹ In the fourth place, continuous staff training, aimed at keeping the employment service staff up-to-date and alert in their own field, should be accorded an important part in employment service administration and should include not only initial and on-the-job training but also "upgrading" training, refresher courses, systematic training in new methods and techniques, and national and regional staff discussions of mutual problems arising in connection with employment service work. Fifthly, a number of countries consider that the staff of the employment service needs to include a good many persons with practical knowledge, understanding and experience of industry, both from the management and from the labour side. The staff of each employment office need to know a good deal about the industries and occupations with which they come into con-

¹ The Minister of Labour of the *Union of South Africa*, in a Senate debate, stated that he was struck "with the unlikelihood of employment officers getting the miserable salaries to which he [another member] made reference being of the calibre that ought to be charged with these responsibilities". "I agree", he added, "and if he and I can shout together loud enough, we may get a much higher standard of individual, resulting from the offer of higher salaries" (*Senate*, 26 Apr. 1944). In the *United States* a very high rate of turnover of employment office staff developed largely from salary restrictions imposed when the service was nationalised in 1942 and caused great difficulty in implementing the war manpower programme. In *Canada*, too, the employment service has been hampered by the low level of salaries paid to employment office staff of all grades. The employers' representative on the Unemployment Insurance Commission stated, for example, that "salary schedules [for the employment service] are set by Civil Service and Treasury Board. We believe they are far too low in most cases. The rate of turnover of our staff is 18 per cent. — far too high" (*Industrial Canada*, July 1946).

tact. Otherwise, they will not have the respect either of the prospective employer or of the job seeker. That the employment service staff should possess extensive and practical knowledge of industrial and labour conditions is most important, especially when the work of the employment service is linked with employment planning as well as with employment organisation; and it unquestionably strengthens the relations of the service with employers' and workers' organisations. Finally, there is a noticeable trend towards emphasising the national character of the responsibilities of employment service staff—a trend which has accompanied measures to centralise the service in structure and function.¹

The application of these principles involves a considerable amount of uniformity throughout the employment service in job and salary grading or classifications, in the qualifications and training required for appointments to the various job categories, in the system of in-service promotion, etc. Most countries have therefore found it essential to develop, through central civil service procedures, minimum national personnel standards applicable and enforceable throughout the employment service.² Where national civil service rules govern appointments and promotions, personnel problems are simplified. It becomes possible to build up a qualified professional staff and to ensure that such staff are in fact employed in the various regional and local offices. It becomes possible to protect employment office personnel from local political pressures, to make sure that their loyalties are undivided, and to develop a national outlook throughout the service. But civil service policies and procedures do not by any means solve all personnel problems. For example, the low scale of compensation which sometimes prevails in public service is bound to militate against the recruitment and retention of the type of staff required. This has been recognised in a number of countries, but it is, of course, a problem of civil service administration as a whole. Nevertheless, it is unquestionably true that national civil service

¹ This is true in *Sweden* and *Great Britain*, for example. In the former country, the Royal Instructions for the State Employment Market Commission, made when the service was centralised in 1940, include specific provision for compliance by the entire staff of the service with all rules and special instructions laid down by the central headquarters; and in the latter country, it is considered that responsibility and control of the management and staff of the employment exchange network must lie with the Ministry of Labour headquarters and not be delegated elsewhere if the exchange system is to operate as a national system.

² In a good many countries the national laws and regulations concerning employment service organisation specify that staff must be selected on a merit basis. In the *United States*, the U. S. Employment Service has been seeking Federal legislative authority to require merit systems for the selection of personnel employed in the State employment services; it considers such authority essential for building up an employment service capable of carrying out the provisions of the Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933.

rules for the recruitment, promotion and other conditions of work of the employment service have facilitated the maintenance of basic national standards of personnel and job performance in a good many countries.

As a part of their post-war plans, a number of countries, including *Australia, Canada, France, India, New Zealand, Sweden*, and the *United States*, have been paying particular attention to the solution of the personnel problems of the employment service by developing a professional career staff, selected on a civil service basis, and by improving their qualifications systematically by organised staff training.¹ For example, the Australian White Paper, *Full Employment in Australia*, stated the policy of the Commonwealth Government as follows:

The Government aims to build a thoroughly efficient [employment] service capable of contributing to the smooth and effective working of the full employment economy. Special attention will be paid to the need to obtain suitably qualified and experienced personnel for all grades of the service, so that full advantage can be taken of the best modern practice in placement, training and vocational guidance. The Government desires to make it clear that no effort will be spared in building a service of the highest quality in both its personnel and procedures.

A further series of questions relate to the premises and material arrangements of the various employment offices of the employment service. These questions may seem to be of minor significance, but in practice are of considerable importance. A conveniently located, well laid out, bright, attractive employment office can do much to raise the prestige of the employment service and to expand the use

¹ In *Canada* and the *United States*, continuous staff training has been made an integral part of regional and local office operation. Each office is expected to carry on a systematic staff training programme and is aided in this task by headquarters staff, who provide training materials and advice. In *Sweden* every member of the employment service staff is obliged to take a certain minimum amount of training not only before undertaking specific functions within the service but during his career as well. In *France* one of the chief methods of strengthening the employment service has been through the organisation of staff training courses, with the material prepared by the central Directorate of Labour; these courses are designed to supply each employment office with the necessary cadre of well-trained staff. In *Czechoslovakia* the Ministry of Social Welfare is stressing the need for systematic staff training; already a great effort is being made to train new staff in their duties and to continue their training. The employment service staff training centres organised in *India* during the last two years (1945 and 1946) for employment office managers and assistant managers are an interesting example of a way of solving certain personnel problems in a country starting an employment service. Some of those attending were nominated by the trade unions, some by the Indian States and some recruited by the military authorities as part of rehabilitation plans. A limited number of the prospective managerial staff for the employment offices went to the United Kingdom for training in employment service work. Other eastern countries and certain Latin American countries have been much interested in the organisation of these staff training centres.

of its facilities by both employers and workers. A good receptionist service, a comfortable waiting room, with adequate space, light and air, decorated with useful and pleasantly arranged information materials, private alcoves for individual interviews, and so on, are often regarded as important elements in efficient employment service organisation. Some years before the war, certain *German* towns spent large sums of money in constructing modern buildings in which to house their employment offices; and in *Great Britain*, *Sweden* and the *United States*, a number of local offices were moved into better premises.¹ In most countries, however, the employment offices frequently occupy dingy premises, creating an unfavourable atmosphere of poverty and desolation. The chief of the Employment Office Services Division of the United States Employment Service War Manpower Commission called attention to the need for adequate premises and some of the problems involved in getting them, continuing:

Desirable premises are partly dependent on available funds: in many communities employment service offices were established in strategic locations, the initial cost being borne by the community itself, but in many other instances, even when funds were available, the community has not permitted the employment service to be located in a desirable section where it could maintain a dignified standing. Considerable improvement has been made in housing local employment offices, but the progress in this respect has been too slow for the space of a decade.²

The solution of most of these problems of premises and material arrangements must be sought on the basis of national and local co-operation, but most countries have found that there is a real need for the development of a minimum standard of adequacy for the employment service as a whole which each local office must meet and live up to in its daily work.³

¹ In *Great Britain* the need for suitable premises for employment exchanges, both in regard to the adequacy of the accommodation and in regard to the location, was emphasised in the *Final Report of the Royal Commission on Unemployment Insurance* (Cmd. 4185, London, 1932). Some improvements were made during the 'thirties, but writing in 1944, a British commentator noted: "Some of the exchanges are still housed in wooden shacks and other temporary accommodation run up in the emergency of 1914-1918. They need good buildings in good position if they are to rise to higher things and take a higher place in the public esteem" (article by Sir Ronald DAVISON in *Manchester Guardian Weekly*, 15 Sept. 1944). In *France* many employment office premises have long been recognised to be badly situated, dingy and inadequately equipped.

² *Manpower Review*, May 1943.

³ It is significant to note the special emphasis placed on the need for national control of the staff and material arrangements of local offices in *Great Britain* in the revised pamphlet of the Ministry of Labour and National Service on *Local Employment Committees*, which contains the following passage: "The responsibility of the Minister to Parliament necessitates the retention of full control of the staff and premises of employment exchanges. Moreover, the exchanges must be conducted as a national

Finally, there is the question of financing the employment service.¹ It is no use calling upon the service to take on new responsibilities, to do better work, to obtain more adequate staff and premises, etc., unless it has the means to do these things; and the basis of this equipment is adequate funds. It must be provided with enough money not only to carry on its day-to-day work, but to improve the quality of its work. A good employment service is a costly mechanism, but it should be looked upon as a sound national investment, both from the human and from the technical standpoint, giving returns in increasing national productivity and higher living standards. The attitude taken towards financing the employment service and the arrangements made for this purpose are thus of basic significance in employment service administration.

In a number of countries, the employment service is financed wholly by the central Government. In *Great Britain*, for example, the cost of the employment exchange network is paid by the Treasury with funds appropriated by Parliament²; and in *Australia, Belgium, Bolivia, Canada, Chile, New Zealand, Norway and Sweden*, among other countries, the service is now nationally financed. In *India* the expenditure incurred by the employment exchanges is shared at present almost equally between the Central and provincial Governments. In *Switzerland* the costs are shared between the cantons and the Federal authorities. In *Finland* a State subsidy is granted to the communes for employment service work; a growing proportion of the total cost is borne by the central Government. In *France* the cost of the installation, organisation and equipment of the regional and departmental manpower services and their local branches was defrayed by the departments in which they were located in the case of the regional and departmental offices and by the communes in the case of the local branches, although the cost of staff for these services was defrayed by the State. Since April 1946, however, the entire cost of the services is borne by the central Government — a change consi-

system, and in questions of finance and staffing the Minister must consider the exchange service as a whole." In *France* the headquarters Directorate of Labour and Manpower has worked out a systematic plan for improving the national arrangements of the employment offices and housing them in modern and well-planned premises. The plan will extend to employment offices in all parts of the country whenever the necessary funds and supplies can be obtained; meanwhile, it is being put into effect in the Paris region.

¹ The cost of the employment service falls into three main parts in most countries: the expense of the central headquarters; that of the regional, State or district offices; and that of the local offices. It is perhaps significant that the great bulk of the cost is that of the local offices, no matter how the service is operated.

² The arrangements made for juvenile employment service work differ slightly.

dered of great importance in facilitating the development of a strong national employment service. In *Turkey* it is planned to finance the service through a national grant included in the Ministry of Labour estimates and through sums obtained from the provinces and municipalities in which employment offices are established (but not to exceed 1 per cent. of their revenues). In the *Argentine Republic* the Federal authorities bear 50 per cent. of the costs of employment offices incorporated in the National Employment Service. In the *United States* the position has been complicated. Under the Wagner-Peyser Act, providing for Federal-State operation of the U.S. Employment Service, the Federal Government gives grants-in-aid to the States on a population basis and there is a dollar-for-dollar matching by the States of the Federal grant; and under the Social Security Act (Title III), which provides for outright grants to the States for unemployment insurance administration, the cost of maintaining the State employment services was regarded as a proper cost of administering the unemployment compensation laws. The portion of cost provided by the States ranged between 5 and 10 per cent. (varying by States) of total employment service cost. Thus, for over a decade, the Employment Service was federally financed in practice.¹ After the Service was federalised (early in 1942), it was financed entirely by Federal money through the War Manpower Commission, and even though it has now been returned to State operation the Federal Government will continue to pay the operating costs.

Looking back over the last fifteen years, there appears to have been a steady trend towards a greater assumption of employment service costs by national authorities. In some countries, this trend first became evident during the depression of the 'thirties; in others, it made its appearance during the war years, when the service was required to assume many additional duties. Since there is a large amount of truth in the maxim that whoever pays the piper calls the tune, the increased national financing of the employment service has been an important method of extending national supervision and direction of employment service activities. There can be no doubt that central Government financing facilitates unified national administration and the operation of a truly national service. Sharing financial responsibilities tends to involve sharing administrative responsibilities, rather than delegating such responsibilities as are considered appropriate by the central headquarters, and to create problems wherever it is desired to have a national employment service. But whether these problems are soluble (with good will plus a solid

¹ The combined contributions did not exceed \$6 million annually, while the cost of operating the Employment Service for 1942, for example, was about \$39 million.

financial structure in the intermediate government units) or whether they are outweighed by the incidental advantages of sharing (such as the stimulation of local interest in services to which the locality contributes), these and other such questions cannot be answered except by the countries which have experience of one or the other of the possible financial arrangements.

Question 8 of the Questionnaire to the Governments therefore reads as follows:

8. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for the formulation of minimum national standards to govern the staffing and material arrangements of the regional and local employment offices?*

(b) *Do you consider that the regulations should provide for the employment service to be financed wholly by the central Government or, alternatively, for the cost of employment service operation to be shared by regional or local government units?*

CHAPTER IV

MACHINERY FOR MANAGEMENT-LABOUR COLLABORATION WITH THE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

Machinery for management-labour collaboration with the employment service may be considered an integral part of the structure of each national service. It has long been recognised that the nature of employment service work requires close and systematic contacts with the chief participants in industrial society — management and labour — and that unless such collaboration is organised, the employment service would find it difficult, if not impossible, to carry out its tasks democratically in a free economy. The importance of providing machinery for securing management-labour co-operation in employment service work was emphasised in the Unemployment Convention, 1919, which lays down as a basic principle of employment service organisation that joint committees including representatives of employers' and workers' organisations should be appointed to advise each national system of free public employment offices. In addition, it has also long been recognised that other groups in the national community not only have a direct interest in the work of the employment service but a direct contribution to make to it. These groups vary to some extent from one country to another, but include agriculture, ex-service personnel, vocational guidance and training organisations, and other associations deeply concerned about an effective employment market organisation. In this chapter, however, the emphasis is primarily on the desirability of formal machinery for securing the full co-operation in employment service work of the organisations representing management and labour, and to a smaller extent only, on collaboration with private associations whose counsel may be of benefit to the service by strengthening its contacts with the public at large.

Many Government departments are likewise concerned with employment service policy and operations. In some cases, they too are represented on the committees set up to advise the employment service. Frequently, however, interdepartmental committees concerned with employment policy are established on a broader basis, with the employment service included in their membership. Where this is the case, reference is made to their work later in the Report in con-

nection with employment service co-operation in general employment planning.¹

The practical value of management-labour collaboration in employment service work was brought to the fore during the war. In the democratic countries of the United Nations, formal and informal machinery for securing the co-operation of employers' and workers' organisations in drafting and applying wartime employment policy was greatly extended and reinforced. On the other hand, in the enemy countries, representation of these interests was suppressed. It is significant, firstly, that the reorganisation of the employment service in liberated countries of Europe (as, for example, in *France*, *Czechoslovakia* and *Poland*) has been accompanied by a marked emphasis on the development of machinery to secure the direct participation of management and labour in employment market organisation; and, secondly, that in many other countries efforts are being made to retain the strengthened management-labour machinery of the war period, adapted as necessary to post-war requirements, and to utilise this machinery fully in carrying out the increasingly numerous and important tasks which fall to the employment service. In the Employment Service Recommendation, 1944, the Conference recommended:

(1) In addition to the joint advisory bodies provided for in Article 2 of the Unemployment Convention, 1919, the employment service should co-operate closely with employers' and workers' organisations. Appropriate machinery should be devised to enable these organisations to assist in the formulation and carrying out of employment policy.

(2) The employment service should co-operate with any joint industry committees which may be set up to facilitate the solution of the special problems of the industries concerned.²

This paragraph was designed to emphasise the view of the Conference that the employment service, to play the significant role in the post-war economy envisaged in the Recommendation, must reinforce its relations with organisations of employers and the trade union movement, both generally and in specific industries and occupations.

While the principle of management-labour collaboration in employment service machinery has been so widely endorsed as to need no further emphasis, the machinery and methods of attaining the desired co-operation of these groups and of other interested bodies have been somewhat slow to develop. For example, in some countries

¹ See below, Chapter VI, under "Association of the Employment Service with Activities affecting the Employment Situation".

² Paragraph 4.

which have had an employment service for many years there are still no systematic arrangements for mobilising this much-needed support, in others the machinery of management-labour collaboration is either experimental or ineffective, and in still others the machinery is provided for but the methods by which it operates have never been satisfactory. At present, a number of countries are examining the machinery and methods used to bring employers' and workers' representatives within the employment service structure. This is particularly true in many European countries, where the increased participation of management and labour in the machinery of the employment service is a notable feature of the reforms of the service undertaken after liberation.

ADVISORY COMMITTEES

It is largely through committees, comprising representatives of employers and workers able to speak for their organisations and not only as individuals, that the employment service draws support from management and labour and other interested groups. Such committees have been formed at every level of employment service operation. Though they differ from one country to another in composition, function and method of work, there are certain similarities in their structure and in the place which they occupy in the employment service structure of the different countries.

National Committees

At the national level, there is a particular need for effective machinery for associating management and labour with the employment service. Not only can their representatives contribute from their own knowledge, experience and contacts to the formulation of the national policy governing employment service operations in the country as a whole and help in overcoming the problems which arise, but they can also be of the greatest assistance in mobilising for the employment service the interest and support of their national organisations, in interpreting its programme to their membership, and in carrying back to the service the views of these organisations, so that the headquarters of the service may be continuously informed of the attitude of management and labour.

Almost every country provides for the establishment of a national committee or council to assist the employment service. In most cases, the existence and composition of such a committee is dictated by the national laws and regulations governing the employment service, which may also prescribe details concerning its functions and

operations. The functions of the national committees differ appreciably from one country to another. In most national laws and regulations, the committees' tasks are broadly defined and not specified in detail. Frequently they are instructed to advise and assist the employment service authorities generally and to perform such functions as may be determined by the responsible Minister. In some cases, they may be competent to deal only with matters referred to them by the authorities responsible for the employment service, and in others, their terms of reference leave them free to take as much initiative as they wish. In still other cases, the national laws and regulations prescribe their functions in considerable detail.

In the *Argentine Republic* the National Employment Exchange Service of the Labour Department is assisted by a Joint Advisory Committee, attached to the central headquarters, which is presided over by the President of the National Labour Department and meets at least once a month. The Committee consists of three representatives of employers and three representatives of wage earning and salaried employees, designated by the most representative national employers' and workers' organisations. Its functions include studying the organisation and operation of the Service with a view to suggesting improvements in its work, noting complaints regarding the employment service and suggesting action to meet them, and determining the minimum remuneration below which the Service shall refuse to offer employment to wage earners or salaried employees. In addition, the Committee must be consulted on all measures of a general nature relating to the work and guidance of the Service.

The Commonwealth Employment Service of *Australia* is to be assisted by a committee of advice at headquarters level, provided for under the Re-establishment and Employment Act of 1945; the committee, it is planned, will consist of two persons nominated by employers and two by workers, with an independent chairman selected by the Minister of Labour. The central committee will be responsible for giving general advice concerning the policy and operations of the Service.

In *Belgium* a Board of Directors, composed of 12 members, 6 selected from among 8 candidates nominated by the industrial organisations most representative of employers as a whole and 6 from among 8 candidates nominated by the organisations most representative of workers as a whole, with an independent chairman chosen by the Crown, directs the Provisional Fund for the maintenance of unemployed workers, which is responsible, at present, for employment service administration. The Board must be consulted by the Director-General of the Fund on all questions of a general nature

and it may take up, on its own initiative, any question which it wishes to examine. The Director-General is bound to comply with all resolutions and decisions of the Board unless he considers they are contrary to existing Acts or Orders or to the State interest, in which case he may refer the matter to the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare and act on his instructions.

In *Canada* a National Employment Committee has been set up in accordance with the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1940. The Committee consists of an equal number of workers' and employers' representatives and also includes representatives of veterans', womens' and agricultural interests. The functions of the Committee are of a general and unrestricted advisory character and not defined in detail in the Act. In practice, the Committee has met fairly regularly and has been consulted by the employment service authorities on all questions involving major decisions of principle and on a number of questions of procedure and organisation.

In *Chile* provision has been made for joint committees of employers' and workers' representatives to advise the General Labour Inspectorate on all matters relating to the employment offices.

In *Czechoslovakia* the employment service of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare plans its programme of work at the national level in close and systematic contact with the central committee of the Czechoslovak Central Council of Trade Unions.

In *Denmark* a central employment service committee consisting of four employers' representatives and four workers' representatives, chosen by the Minister of Labour and Social Affairs on the recommendation of the Danish Employers' Association and the Danish Federation of Trade Unions respectively, and functioning as a section of the Employment Committee (the other section of the Committee deals with unemployment insurance), exercises close supervision over the policy and work of the national employment service. The committee's decisions are final whenever unanimous, while other decisions may be referred to the Minister for final decision.

In *Finland* a special national advisory committee, on which the national organisations of employers and workers are represented in equal numbers, has recently been set up to enable the employment service to benefit from the advice of these organisations and to increase the confidence of their members and of the general public in the work of the service. The committee is consulted by the Minister of Social Affairs on questions of policy but it may also take the initiative in advising the Minister on other questions relevant to the organisation of employment.

In *France* and in *Great Britain* no general machinery has been set up at the national level specifically for the purpose of collabora-

tion with the employment service of the respective Ministries of Labour, but in both countries, national committees including employers' and workers' representatives exist to advise the Ministers of Labour on all questions within their competence, including those relating to the employment service. In France, the National Labour Council includes representatives of Parliament and public authorities, 18 representatives each of employers' and workers' organisations, 6 each of agricultural management and labour and 5 representatives of organisations of independent workers and the co-operatives. Its duties are to study and give advice on problems of labour and social policy, and it may ask the Ministry of Labour to undertake any investigation it considers useful. All draft legislation and administrative regulations on labour and social matters within the Ministry's competence must be placed before the Council for advice, and members of the Council may be called into consultation by parliamentary committees considering such legislation. In Great Britain, there is a National Joint Advisory Council "to advise the Government on matters in which the employers and workers have a common interest" and a National Joint Consultative Committee "to advise the Minister of Labour and National Service on all matters arising out of the legislation passed by Parliament", each consisting of equal numbers of employers' and workers' representatives. Both of these bodies were set up during the war to promote closer management-labour collaboration with the Ministry of Labour in activities connected with the organisation of employment. They have been consulted by the Minister on all important matters arising in connection with the operations of the employment exchanges.

In *Hungary* the Central Council of Trade Unions is responsible for organising and supervising the work of the country's employment offices (which are run by the trade unions), and the Council carries out this task according to the instructions of the Ministry for Industry.

In *India* the headquarters of the employment exchange system now being developed will be assisted by a central Employment Advisory Committee, which is to consist of representatives of management and of trade unions in public and private industry, and will possibly include representation of other interests. Its functions will be of an advisory, rather than an administrative, character and will be broadly defined.

The *New Zealand* Employment Act of 1945 authorises the Minister of Employment to appoint advisory councils and committees to perform such functions connected with employment service policy and operations as he may determine. The composition of the councils and committees is not prescribed by the Act.

In the *Netherlands* the Order of 17 July 1944 provides for a central auxiliary and consultative committee to assist the Director-General of the National Labour Office, on which the employment service depends; the committee, which is appointed by the Minister of Social Affairs, consists of at least two representatives each of organisations representative of employers and of wage earners, and an independent chairman. Its duties are to advise the Minister of Social Affairs and the Director-General of the Labour Office, either on their request or on its own initiative.

Norway and *Sweden* both have representative central machinery. In the former country, the Provisional Manpower Directorate is headed by a Board of Directors consisting of a chairman and six members, including two representatives of the national organisations of employers and two of the trade unions. In Sweden, the State Employment Market Commission, responsible for directing the country's employment service, itself includes employers' and workers' representatives. In both countries, provision is made for an advisory council at the national level as well. Norway's Manpower Directorate may call upon a representative panel of experts, chosen because of their competence to advise on employment market organisation; and Sweden's Employment Market Commission is assisted by an advisory Employment Market Commission Council, which likewise includes employers' and workers' representatives.

In *Switzerland* the Delegate on Employment Possibilities, appointed in 1941 to promote effective employment organisation, is advised by a consultative committee composed of representatives of public authorities, scientific, technical, and economic associations, and employers' and workers' organisations. It is the task of the Committee to assist the Delegate in every possible way and in particular to give advice on questions specifically referred to it.

In *Turkey* the 1946 Act respecting the setting up of the Employment Exchange Department provides for an advisory board composed of one representative of each of the Ministries to which undertakings employing workers are attached, one representative of the Ministry of Health and Welfare, and one of each of the provincial general assemblies and municipalities making grants towards the expenses of the employment service, and of representatives of the chambers of commerce and industry and of workers' organisations, in conformity with a roster approved by the Ministry of Labour. The duties of the board, as defined by the Act, are to examine questions within the scope of the activities of the Department, to submit recommendations to the Ministry of Labour and to give advice on any matters referred to it by the Ministry.

In the *United States* the Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933, setting up the Employment Service on a Federal-State basis, provides for the establishment of a Federal Advisory Council "composed of men and women representing employers and employees in equal numbers and the public", selected from time to time by the Director of the Employment Service. The duties of the Council are described in the Act itself as "formulating policies and discussing problems relating to employment and insuring impartiality, neutrality and freedom from political influence in the solution of such problems".

The Council, during the war, met infrequently and in August 1946 was reconstituted with smaller membership. It is expected that it will meet more frequently than it did before the war.¹

The Director of the National Employment Service of *Venezuela* is empowered, by the Act of 1945, to appoint an advisory committee consisting of an equal number of employers and workers to assist him on questions arising in connection with the operation of the employment service.

Regional Committees

Fewer countries have established machinery for ensuring management-labour collaboration at the regional level of employment service operation. While most countries in which the employment service includes active regional employment offices consider it desirable to attach management-labour or tripartite committees to these offices, the machinery is more difficult to establish, primarily because employers' and workers' organisations are not always set up on a regional basis, or even where they have regional units the latter may not coincide with the regions used for employment service purposes. As at the national level, the composition and functions of the regional committees vary appreciably from one country to another. In some countries, they are composed only of employers' and workers' representatives (in equal numbers), while in others they include, in addition, representatives of private groups or interests and of other public authorities. In some countries, the committees exercise supervisory and quasi-executive powers and act as the board of directors for regional employment service work, while in others they are confined to giving advice and assistance on employment service problems

¹ During the war, following the establishment of the War Manpower Commission and the temporary transference to it of responsibility for the operation of the United States Employment Service, a special Management-Labor Policy Committee was set up, composed of representatives of the national management and labour organisations, with an independent chairman. This Committee advised the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission on all questions coming under the responsibility of the Commission itself. As a wartime agency, however, it ceased to meet after the close of the war.

arising within the region. Within any one country, the functions of the regional committees may vary widely from one region to another. This appears to be particularly true in large federal countries like Australia, Canada and the United States.

In *Australia* it is planned to set up advisory committees, including equal numbers of employers' and workers' representatives, to assist each State employment office of the Employment Service. In *Canada* each of the five regional employment offices is assisted by an advisory board, made up of equal numbers of employers' and workers' representatives and, where considered desirable, of representatives of ex-servicemen, women and agriculture. In the *United States* the Wagner-Peyser Act specifies that the Director of the Employment Service must require the organisation of State employment service advisory councils, composed, like the Federal Council, of men and women representing employers and employees in equal numbers and the public (the latter members being chosen, in practice, from interested State bodies and organisations representing such interests as agriculture, war veterans, women's groups, etc.).¹ In these three countries, the functions of the committees are not prescribed — except that they are confined to acting in an advisory capacity — but may be freely developed by the State or regional committee and employment office concerned. In practice, the regional committees in Canada and the State committees in those States of the United States where they have been active have dealt with a wide range of varied questions, including, for example, the retraining of unemployed applicants for work; the interpretation of the phrase "suitable employment" in connection with unemployment insurance claims; the organisation of employment service work for veterans, youth, disabled persons, technical and professional workers, etc.; and the methods of promoting a wider use of employment service facilities in the region or State.

In *France* the departmental manpower committees are likewise advisory in function, and they also include not only equal numbers of employers' and workers' representatives but members representing public authorities. The committees have been asked for advice on a variety of questions of employment organisation, including the em-

¹ During the war, regional machinery was set up in the United States for the solution of manpower problems, including supervision of the operation of the various State bodies within the regions. Regional management-labour committees, composed of representatives of the employers and workers in the regions, were set up under the chairmanship of each regional director of the War Manpower Commission to advise in particular on all problems arising from wartime manpower mobilisation. Although most of these committees have ceased to exist, a number have continued informally where local conditions and the personnel of the committee have been such as to encourage their work in connection with post-war adjustments in employment organisation.

ployment of prisoners of war, the promotion of occupational mobility through retraining and the conditions in which the transfer of unemployed workers should take place. *India* plans to organise provincial employment service advisory councils, to consist of two representatives each of employers' and workers' organisations, one representative of the provincial government and one of the authorities responsible for resettling ex-service personnel. In *Switzerland* the establishment of cantonal advisory committees, including employers' and workers' members, to give general assistance in the development of the cantonal employment service work is a condition of the grant of Federal subsidy to the cantons for employment service purposes; the tasks of the committees (which are active in a large number of cantons) vary from one canton to another.

In a number of other countries, the regional committees remain advisory in function but have more clearly defined tasks. Thus in *Belgium* each regional office of the Provisional Fund for the maintenance of the unemployed is assisted by a regional advisory committee composed of four members representing employers and four representing workers, selected by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare from six candidates nominated by the organisations most representative of the employers and workers in the region, with an independent chairman elected by the other members of the committee. The regional advisory committees are instructed to advise on the functioning of the employment offices of the region, to evaluate the impartiality of the offices in their recruiting and placing of workers, to increase the efficiency of the service by enlisting the interest and support of the employers and trade unions of the region, to take an initiative in suggesting methods of improving and developing the placement and other work carried on within the region, to assist in promoting the specialisation of employment service work by industry or occupation, and to examine questions submitted to them by the regional director of the employment service or from the national Board of Directors or Director-General of the Fund. In the *Netherlands* each regional office is aided by an advisory committee, which is required to include at least two representatives of employers' organisations and two of the trade unions and which is responsible not only for giving general advice on regional employment service policy and operations, but also for rendering decisions in cases where unemployed workers object to taking up the employment to which they have been directed by the regional office or by local offices within the region.

In *Great Britain*, although there are no management-labour advisory committees specifically attached to the Ministry of Labour

and National Service, the regional boards for industry of the Board of Trade are available to the regional representatives of the Ministry and are frequently consulted by them on general problems affecting employment. The regional boards are composed of three or four representatives each of employers and trade unions and of regional representatives of a number of departments, including the Ministry of Labour and National Service. According to their terms of reference, they are required, among other things, "to advise Ministers upon industrial conditions within the regions, and upon steps which may be necessary to bring their resources in capacity or labour into fuller use".

In still other countries, the regional committees act as the board of directors or management council of the regional employment office. In *Sweden*, for example, the provincial labour boards, which act as the regional directorates of the employment service, include employers' and workers' representatives in their membership.¹ These boards work on the basis of policy directives from the Employment Market Commission and supervise the operations of the employment offices within the province. In *Norway* each county unit of the employment service, organised under the provisional Manpower Directorate, is under the direct supervision of a county employment council of three to five members, including at least one representative, respectively, of the townships of the county, of employers' associations and of workers' organisations. These councils are responsible for controlling the work of the communal employment offices and for carrying out functions delegated to them by the national Directorate. They are responsible for keeping informed concerning the trend of employment and unemployment within the county and for taking an initiative in examining the possibilities of undertaking projects designed to improve the situation. In *Denmark* somewhat similar county machinery, with somewhat similar functions, has been established.

Local Committees

Most countries attach special importance to reinforcing the employment service machinery with an active network of local committees representative of the management and labour interests in the community, and sometimes, according to national policy, of other interested public or private bodies. At the local level, the

¹ In addition, each provincial board is assisted by a provincial employment council, set up to advise the board as experts on all matters of technical employment planning and organisation within the province.

functions of the committees tend to become more detailed and more specific. Their general task may be to give advice on the work of the local employment office or to direct and supervise its activities. In either case, it is translated into highly practical terms, as a rule, with the committees free to discuss and make recommendations or decisions (as the case may be) on any question they consider of importance in the local employment scene.

As at the national and regional levels, the local committees in a good many countries have purely advisory functions. Thus, in *Canada* some 62 local advisory committees have been set up, each one including equal representation of employers' and workers' organisations and in addition members selected to represent the community interests of war veterans, women and agriculture. These committees are responsible for acquainting the employment office with the views of local management and labour, for helping the manager to meet problems connected with the work of the office, for suggesting means of dealing with complaints which may arise in regard to placement operations in the community and for promoting interest in the work of the office among employers' and workers' organisations and other groups in the locality.¹ In *Great*

¹ The Secretary of the National Employment Committee called special attention to the practical value of the local advisory committees, noting, in particular:

With the lifting of National Selective Service controls, the local office may find itself confronted, more and more, with problems which the manager himself is called upon to decide. In making his decision it is sometimes of very definite value for him to have the viewpoint of persons not associated directly with the functioning of the office but desirous of assisting it to function effectively. Parliament felt that it was important for him to know the viewpoint of employers and employees in respect to such problems, not to speak of the very important viewpoint of veterans as well as women. From the local employment committee a manager can obtain this, provided that the proper relation prevails. If he regards his committee in the nature of a board of directors, without administrative power but with advisory functions, and if he will bring to his committee his problems, the committee frequently, looking at them from a different viewpoint, can suggest solutions. At least the committee can discuss the problems, and its members can take them to the organisations represented and bring back to the meeting the reaction of these organisations. But the scope of the committee can be much wider than this. The manager brings his particular viewpoint to the committee. The committee members have also the right to bring to the manager, at committee meetings, the suggestions emanating from the organisations which they represent. In this way, the manager may receive entirely new angles towards the work of his office. He may find that his viewpoint on a certain matter has been too much that of the office administrator, and that he has missed some aspect which is of importance to the public. The National Committee has found that the success of a local committee depends almost entirely on two things. First, the manager of the office to which the committee is advisory must be interested in the work of the committee, prepared to co-operate with it, and appre-

(Footnote continued overleaf)

Britain local employment committees, composed of representatives of employers and workers, are attached to most employment exchanges.¹ Each committee consists of three sections, an employers' panel appointed by the Minister after consultation with local employers' associations, a workers' panel appointed in the same way, and an additional members' panel consisting of representatives of other interests (such as local authorities, ex-servicemen, social service bodies and juvenile employment experts) and of representatives of subcommittees of the local employment committees. The local committees are considered an integral part of the employment exchange system, and are free to discuss any questions arising out of the employment exchange work. A 1946 memorandum of the Ministry of Labour, outlining their constitution and tasks, states, for example, that "they are entrusted with the widest functions of advice and guidance in the working of the employment exchanges consistent with the responsibility to Parliament for the administration of the department which the Minister must necessarily retain". The tasks of the committees, as set forth in this memorandum, together with model rules of procedure, are included as an appendix to this Report. In the *Union of South Africa* soldiers' and war workers' employment committees, representative of employers, employees, public bodies, and Government departments, have been set up in the larger population centres, and it is hoped, from this basis, to develop local employment advisory committees as a permanent feature of the country's employment service machinery. In the *United States* local advisory employment service committees were often established by the local offices of the State Employment Services before the war and local management-labour committees were made an integral part of the operating structure of the United States Employment Service under the War Manpower Commission; at present, consideration is being given to the reconstitution of local committees, most of which consist of equal numbers of employers' and workers' representatives together with representatives of such other interests (agriculture, veterans, etc.) as may be considered desirable to strengthen the con-

ciative of any help which it can give him. Second, the chairman and members of the committee should be in touch with conditions in the community where the committee is established, and keenly interested in helping to solve unemployment problems as they arise. The members representing the different organisations should be thoroughly aware of the viewpoint of the organisations they represent. Finally, the committee should be anxious to co-operate with the manager in interpreting to the public the functions of the employment office and its scope and activities. (*Trades and Labour Congress Journal*, Nov. 1945, p. 17.)

¹ In 1939, there was, in general, a local employment committee attached to each employment exchange, totalling 340 employment committees in Great Britain.

tacts of the local offices with community organisations important to their work.¹

In a number of countries of continental Europe, the local machinery for enlisting management-labour co-operation takes the form of supervisory councils responsible for directing the activities of the local employment offices. In *Greece*, for example, the local committees, though now called advisory committees, have the function of supervising the operations of the local offices and establishing their budgets, as well as of proposing improvements in the local machinery to the Minister of National Economy and entering into close contacts with the local organisations of employers and individual undertakings and with the local trade unions. The committees include from five to eleven members, with an equal number of employers' and workers' representatives and other members nominated by the local municipal council. In *Czechoslovakia* the district labour offices are directed by an administrative board consisting of representatives of wage earners and of experts active in the field of economics or social service; the members of the board are appointed by the provincial national committee in agreement with the Central Council of Trade Unions. These boards have broad supervisory and executive functions connected with administering the manpower mobilisation scheme under the Two-Year Plan, and their work is being watched with care by the Government, which considers it a significant experiment in public administration. In *Hungary* each trade union employment office is aided by a placement committee, consisting of equal numbers of employers and workers and an independent chairman up to a total of five to seven members. The committee is responsible for supervising local employment service work and reporting to the Ministry of Industry thereon, for keeping watch over the conditions and trend of the local employment market and proposing suitable action to meet the problems which arise, for hearing and remedying grievances associated with the local employment service work and for making general improvements in the work. In *Norway* the unemployment councils, or specially appointed committees of the councils, are the local organs of the provisional Manpower Directorate; they consist of equal numbers of employers' and workers' representatives. The chief duties of the councils are to supervise and take such responsi-

¹ Legislation to amend the Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933 that was being considered by the Congress in 1945 and 1946 included a new clause concerning local committees; the clause would have required the organisation of "such local advisory councils as may be appropriate, which shall also be composed of men and women representing employers and workers in equal numbers and the public". Moreover, in a number of cases the area management-labour committees of the War Manpower Commission are being utilised as a basis for the reconstitution of local advisory committees of the United States Employment Service.

bility for the local employment office and its operations as may be delegated to the local level by the county councils and to keep themselves fully informed on the local employment situation.

The preceding examples of the composition and general functions of the committees set up to facilitate the collaboration of employers' and workers' organisations with the employment service at all operating levels suffice to illustrate the wide general acceptance of the need for such committees and the considerable diversity of their composition and functions from one country to another.

From the standpoint of composition, the chief question of principle which arises is whether the membership should be confined solely to employers' and workers' representatives or whether it should include representatives of either public or private interests concerned with employment service operation in one way or another. In national practice, as noted above, the committees at all levels almost invariably include equal representation of employers' and workers' organisations. In many cases, the membership is confined to such representatives, with an independent chairman who is usually selected by the other members of the committee. In other cases, representatives of other groups or interests, public and private, have been added to the membership of the committees. Certainly, the development and application of the total programme of the employment service requires full consideration of community as well as labour and management needs. Some countries consider that a better balanced and integrated programme may be obtained when the different viewpoints represented by various community interests can be considered together rather than through the medium of separate advisory committees. Other countries prefer to set up special subcommittees to secure contacts with particular interests other than management and labour, for example subcommittees on women's or ex-servicemen's problems or on the placement of disabled persons. Still other countries consider that the management-labour committees are the most effective machinery for the employment service, and that any other committees set up to enable the service to obtain advice from other public or private bodies or experts should be kept separate from this basic channel of collaboration with management and labour groups.

There is little difference to be noted in the composition of the committees at the various operating levels of the employment service. In most countries, the pattern tends to be the same at the national, regional and local levels, though at the local level there appears to be greater flexibility in practice in the composition of the committees. The increasing nationalisation of industry may have an effect on the composition of employment service committees and their place in

the administrative structure, but so far little direct evidence of this has come to light, except in *Czechoslovakia* and *Hungary*.

So far as function is concerned, there is a trend towards broadening the tasks of the management and labour representatives and increasing their participation in employment service work. One of the chief questions to be decided is whether the nature of the duties of the committees should be advisory or policy-making or administrative. As has been seen, national practice varies on this point and both types of committees have been established and seem to have functioned satisfactorily.

The importance attached to the establishment and active functioning of representative advisory committees as a permanent part of employment service machinery and a tendency to specify and broaden their functions has already been evidenced in a number of countries. In *Canada*, for example, the Chairman of the National Employment Committee, stressing the practical value of the work of the national, regional and local employment advisory committees of the employment service, stated that the committees would probably find themselves working in a wider field after the war, and that in consequence it was hoped that the committees could build themselves into a strong, effective organisation to carry on after the war.¹ In *Great Britain*, as has been noted, special efforts are being made to reconstitute and promote the active operation of local employment committees. The Ministry of Labour and National Service considers the committees "indispensable to the proper working of the Ministry's local organisation"², and this view is shared by the trade unions and employers' organisations, which are taking steps to select members for the committees more carefully and to give greater consecutive attention to their work. In *Sweden* the State Employment Market Commission and the provincial labour boards have frequently paid tribute to the work of management-labour representatives and other experts in assisting the smooth and effective operation of the employment service as a whole. In 1944, the Employment Market Commission in a memorandum prepared for the International Labour Office, stated that the virtually frictionless collaboration established between the service and employers' and workers' representatives had been of the greatest value for its work.³ The Government's

¹ *Labour Gazette*, Jan. 1945.

² MINISTRY OF LABOUR AND NATIONAL SERVICE: *Local Employment Committees*, 1946.

³ "Between the public employment service on the one hand and the organisations of workers and employers on the other there has for long been close collaboration in Sweden. Representatives of the workers' and employers' organisations sit as members of the Employment Market Commission and the

(Footnote continued overleaf)

report on the measures taken to give effect to the 1944 Recommendations on employment organisation stress the same principle and call attention to the extension of this collaboration as a means of dealing more satisfactorily with post-war problems of employment arising at the national and provincial levels of employment service operation.

In the *United States* the Employment Service itself is anxious to reinforce the advisory machinery at all operating levels and to adapt it to a widening of the competence of the employment offices, so that these may become more closely integrated with the employment problems of their communities than ever before. Both the employers' groups and the trade unions take a special interest in this task as a part of post-war employment service reform. The Committee for Economic Development, representing employers' groups, has urged a strengthening of the employment service throughout the country by the setting up of local advisory committees of citizens, business men and labour representatives.¹ Spokesmen of both the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations have called attention to the valuable role of the extended system of management-labour committees which operated as a part of the wartime manpower machinery, and have urged that their experience should be retained by the Employment Service and not tossed lightly aside as the country turns to peacetime employment problems. Both groups attach particular importance to the maintenance of active advisory committees at the national, State and local levels because of the close relationship between employment service referral policy and the maintenance of standards agreed by collective bargaining. The A.F. of L. has pointed out, for example, that through representation on these committees organised labour can have a voice in maintaining union standards in the hiring of workers on the job and in keeping the employment service's work directed towards improving, rather than lowering, working conditions.² It is significant

provincial labour boards, in addition to which advisory bodies have been attached to these institutions comprising a number of representatives of employers and workers from different branches of economic activity. Furthermore, it is the custom of the Commission, before taking any important decision, to discuss the matter with the central employers' and workers' organisations. The virtually frictionless collaboration that has thus been established has been of the greatest value for the work of the employment service."

¹ *C.E.D. News*, Sept. 1945.

² *A. F. of L. Weekly News Service*, 15 June 1943. The same series of articles states, among other things:

Advisory committees are a chance for partnership in getting the job done... Co-operation through active advisory committees is not pressure politics... The committee is not there to boss... Organisations of employers and labour represented on advisory committees co-operate because each has something at stake and something to contribute... Advisory committees have great power.

that two of the seven main points put forward by the A.F. of L. in its August 1945 "Program for a National Employment Service" related to representative advisory committees: the one urged the appointment of a national committee to develop the broad policies of the service; and the other, the maintenance of a network of local councils to guide the operation of the local employment service offices.

In the liberated countries of Europe particular importance is attached to developing effective and active representative committees for the reorganised employment services, partly because experience during the occupation gave such a clear lesson in the disastrous results, from the management and labour standpoints, of the suppression of collaboration of this kind and partly because of the greater participation of management and especially trade union representatives in many government activities as a result of increased nationalisation of industry and State planning. Moreover, the manpower shortage and the increased powers of the employment service in most of these countries have given new and important functions to the advisory committees and reinforced the basic reasons for their existence and expansion. Thus in all these countries for which information is available the reconstitution of machinery for management-labour collaboration with the employment service has been given a clear-cut priority in Government plans for manpower mobilisation.

The preceding considerations suggest the desirability of consulting the Governments in regard to strengthening the existing provisions of the Unemployment Convention, 1919, and the Employment Service Recommendation, 1944, so far as the question of management-labour collaboration in employment service work is concerned. The following questions are therefore included in the Questionnaire:

9. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should specify that machinery should be established for securing the full co-operation of employers' and workers' representatives in employment service organisations —*

- (i) *at the national level?*
- (ii) *at the regional level?*
- (iii) *at the local level?*

(b) *If so, do you consider that the regulations should specify that this machinery should consist of general advisory committees, set up at each administrative level and including equal numbers of employers' and workers' representatives, together with representatives of such other interests as may be considered useful according to national and local circumstances?*

(c) *Have you any suggestions concerning the functions of these committees that might be specified in the regulations?*

COLLABORATION IN PARTICULAR INDUSTRIES AND UNDERTAKINGS

In addition to the general machinery for securing the co-operation of management and labour in employment service operations, the employment service of many countries is emphasising the desirability of developing close consultation between the employment service and management and labour in particular industries and undertakings for the purpose of helping to solve the special problems of these industries and undertakings. The need for such collaboration arises at all levels of employment service operation.

Before the war of 1939-1945, occupational specialisation in employment service organisation in several countries had led to the setting up of special machinery for management-labour co-operation in a few industries faced with difficult problems of labour supply — particularly those in which operations were highly irregular, such as the building construction and port transport industries. During the war, however, the development of joint committees on an industry basis and of in-plant joint production committees or works councils, on the one hand, and, on the other, the urgent need of certain industries for additional workers or for more effective utilisation of the existing labour supply, led the manpower authorities of many of the belligerent countries to utilise this specialised machinery for enlisting the aid of management and labour in these industries and undertakings in employment service work so that these particular employment needs could be met more satisfactorily. Some of this machinery was abandoned at the end of the war, but the related principles of joint management-labour collaboration on an industry basis for dealing with problems of the recruitment, training, placement and mobility of the industrial labour force and of joint committees within the various undertakings appear to be firmly established. In the liberated countries, moreover, joint machinery for management-labour collaboration in the different industries and undertakings has been a prominent feature of both immediate reconstruction and long-term post-war planning. Further impetus to the creation of such machinery has been given by increased State planning of industrial activity and by nationalisation programmes. The Employment Service Recommendation, 1944, took account of these tendencies, and included a special paragraph urging the employment service to adapt its organisation and operations to these developments. Paragraph 4 (2) reads:

The employment service should co-operate with any joint industry committees which may be set up to facilitate the solution of the special problems of the industries concerned.

Within the limited time following the end of the war, the employment services of several countries have taken steps to promote closer collaboration between their national, regional and local offices and the representatives of management and labour of particular industries and undertakings. Almost every employment service has numerous informal contacts with employers and workers of particular industries or undertakings and often takes the initiative in calling conferences to discuss their problems. But the characteristic of post-war developments has been the tendency to place these consultations on a more systematic and formal basis, not to supplant, but to supplement such informal arrangements. This has been particularly true in *Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Great Britain, Hungary, Poland and Sweden*. The machinery and methods of organising this type of collaboration remain largely experimental, but there can be little doubt of their practical importance in employment service work in the post-war economy.

For several countries there are few concrete developments to report, though the employment service is working far more closely with certain individual industries, for the most part those which have been particularly affected by the transition to peace (such as building construction and transport) or which have special importance for carrying out longer-term post-war plans. In other countries more has been done to provide closer contacts between the employment service and industrial planning committees. In *Great Britain*, for example, the employment service network of the Ministry of Labour has collaborated closely with the working parties set up on an industry basis by the Board of Trade; and this collaboration extends from the national on through the regional and down to the local levels of employment service and industrial operation. In *Canada* the employment offices seek to maintain a close liaison, partly through the network of advisory committees and partly through special committees and conferences, with industrial machinery set up for coping with manpower problems and with those of the joint production committees which have survived the transition to peace. The *Australian* Commonwealth Employment Service plans to work closely with the representatives of the major industries, at the Commonwealth, State and local levels, so that the employment service facilities may be as useful as possible in the country's industrial development. In *Sweden* the Employment Market Commission has encouraged the formation of industry committees on a national basis (either joint

committees or committees of employers or workers representing the industry) for the purpose of discussing employment problems in those particular branches of activity. Similar steps have been taken at the provincial level in a number of the provinces.

In a number of European countries the employment service has been brought into close contact with committees of management and labour representatives set up on an industry or plant basis to assist in reconstruction and national development. In *Czechoslovakia*, for example, arrangements have been made to secure close collaboration of the employment service with the representatives of management, of public and private enterprise and of the trade unions. At the national level, committees of experts discuss manpower problems of particular industries and make recommendations for solving these problems to the Central Council of Trade Unions and the Ministry of Social Affairs (which is responsible for the employment service). The works councils have been assigned an important role in carrying out the manpower programme under the Two-Year Plan. They are to ascertain the labour requirements of their undertakings and to co-operate closely with the labour offices in staffing the undertaking and utilising the available labour economically and productively. The councils must also analyse job requirements so as to facilitate the placement by the labour offices of part-time women workers, disabled persons, and other reserves of labour which the offices may be able to mobilise for productive work. The labour offices are responsible for distributing workers according to priority requirements; and in directing workers from one undertaking to another, the offices help the works councils of the undertakings concerned to get directly into touch with each other with a view to arranging the redistribution and protecting the workers involved. In *France* the manpower services of the Ministry of Labour co-operate closely with the works committees set up in undertakings employing at least 100 persons. This collaboration is considered of great importance as a means of ensuring efficient staffing of factories and productive use of the labour force at a time when workers of most kinds, skilled and unskilled, are in short supply and the central problem of the employment service relates to the mobilisation of labour reserves and their preparation for available employment and the redistribution of employed manpower in conformity with economic requirements. In *Hungary* the individual national and local trade unions participate directly in the employment organisation work of the placement services. In *Bulgaria* works committees have been set up in all industrial undertakings to assist the management and to represent the workers' interests. They are instructed to co-operate with the per-

sonnel of the Manpower Directorate in analysing and meeting labour requirements and in selecting the workers to be dismissed where re-trenchment is necessary. In the tobacco industry, for example, the works committees and the employment service work closely together in transferring workers to other employment during the slack season, and the local union and works committees participate in the decisions of the employment offices concerning the selection of the kinds and places of work to which the workers are assigned. In several countries, pre-war and wartime schemes for decasualising employment are being adapted to post-war requirements and include special joint industry machinery to put them into effect. In all such cases, the employment service is faced with the need of devising methods appropriate for collaborating in the application of such schemes and assisting this special machinery. The nationalisation of particular industries inevitably requires special planning machinery for industry, and the employment service has responsibilities in connection with facilitating the solution of its manpower problems.

It is desirable to stress the importance of such developments to the structure and operations of the employment service. If the service is to play a truly constructive role in the employment market, it must take full account of changes in industrial organisation affecting the machinery of management-labour relations. The following questions are therefore included in the Questionnaire:

10. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for the employment service to co-operate with any joint management-labour committees that may be set up to deal with the special problems of particular industries or undertakings?*

(b) *If so, have you any suggestions concerning the machinery and methods appropriate for this purpose?*

CHAPTER V

SPECIALISATION OF EMPLOYMENT SERVICE WORK

Within a national employment service, a number of important organisational problems relate to the adaptation of the work of each office to the employment needs of the employers and workers making use of its facilities. As a general rule, these problems are dealt with by means of specialising employment service work for particular industries or occupational groups or for particular categories of job seekers. The arrangements for specialisation take many different forms and vary considerably, not only from one country to another, but from one employment office to another within any one country. Their aim is the same, however—to improve the quality of work of the service and to extend the range of its activities.

The extent to which specialisation of employment service activities is considered desirable and practicable varies with a number of factors. These include, for one thing, the stage of development of the employment service as a whole. In most countries, the service has tended to introduce specialised arrangements slowly, as a part of its general growth and, in particular, as a part of its broader occupational coverage of the employment market and of its wider contacts with the various groups of the working population. Specialisation tends at first to be very slight, growing out of the internal division of labour within the employment office; then, definite occupational or other sections may take shape, and become standardised to some extent, through the various larger employment offices of the service; and finally, these arrangements may develop into separate offices, specialising entirely in the recruiting and placement of particular occupational groups or particular categories of workers. It does not follow that specialisation of work in a well-established service will move through all these stages; but it is true that a newly created and inexperienced employment service needs far greater flexibility in internal organisation and that a more highly developed service tends to include a far greater number and variety of specialised arrangements. Specialisation of service will also vary with the size of the individual employment office. In a

small office, little can or need be done to specialise internal work so as to meet the requirements of employers and workers; in larger offices, on the other hand, greater specialisation is both necessary and practicable. The character of the local employment market served by the office will also affect the internal organisation of the office. The activities of some offices are concentrated on a few occupational groups simply because of the peculiar nature of the labour requirements of the area within which they operate. Above all, the character of the occupation or industry or category of worker is a determining factor in decisions concerning the introduction and extent of specialisation.

It follows that the extent to which employment service work is specialised and the character of its specialisation vary considerably in the different countries. Most countries use some form and degree of occupational specialisation in employment office work, primarily on the grounds that arrangements of this kind contribute to the efficient technical performance of basic employment service functions. A growing number of countries are developing specialised work for juveniles, for disabled persons, and for technical, professional and supervisory workers. Specialisation by sex, accepted with little question in the past, is becoming less common and is at present a somewhat controversial question in several countries. Specialised employment assistance to veterans is a wholly logical part of demobilisation and resettlement plans but may be expected to decline in importance as the special need passes.

Differences of view on the extent of specialisation considered desirable have been expressed. Opposition to its extended use may be illustrated by the following passages from the *United States Employment Service Manual*:

Inasmuch as differences occur in the occupational knowledge required in taking complete interviews for different occupational groups, additional [staff] positions may be established on the basis of occupations. The range of occupations assigned to a single position may be broad or narrow, depending upon the scope of activity. However, specialisation by occupations does not relieve any individual position of responsibility for taking any application when the need arises...

Many persons... require more intensive consideration to determine their occupational qualifications than others. Inexperienced applicants or those with limited or obsolete work histories, as well as those with certain physical defects or disabilities, are examples... When the volume is sufficient, one or more separate positions may be established for taking applications of inexperienced or physically handicapped applicants. Many offices will not have enough of these applicants to warrant a full-time position. In these offices specialisation may still be achieved by assigning responsibility for these applicants to one of the regular application-taking positions.

Specialisation on the basis of sex and age has been used in many local offices. Experience has shown that such a specialisation is unsound. Substantially the same knowledge, techniques and methods are used regardless of sex or age. Therefore, positions shall not be established on these bases...

Although most of the basic processes involved in employer promotion and placement are essentially the same, variations in specific labour problems between individual firms, industries or groups of industries, require the development and use of diversified knowledge relating to individual situations. Different firms seldom have personnel practices, occupational distribution, or seasonal fluctuations exactly alike. Therefore, when additional employer service positions are necessary, specialisation may be on the basis of individual firms, industries or groups of related industries...

Specialisation in employer service on the basis of occupation, sex, age, or special groups, such as inexperienced or handicapped, is undesirable because it results in duplication of contacts with individual employers and makes it impossible to fix responsibility for adequate service to any firm. In addition, experience has indicated that employers prefer to deal with one person rather than several.

Where opinion runs more strongly in favour of greater specialisation of employment service work¹, however, it is argued that, within the practical administrative possibilities of each employment office, accurate and successful matching of men and jobs in modern industrial conditions demands profound technical and human knowledge, which can be obtained through specialisation of interviewing, counselling, employer relations and placement work, permitting concentration on a smaller range of the employment market. It is appreciated that the specialisation must cover a wide enough range to allow considerable occupational mobility among selected and comparable occupations and a full choice of suitable employment, and also that each specialised unit should be an open compartment so that persons who fall within it may have relative freedom of occupational choice over the whole employment market, should they desire to exercise this right or should employment conditions make it logical.² It is considered that the pitfalls of specialisation can be avoided by making the specialised arrangements an integral part of general

¹ In *Canada*, for example, the Minister of Labour stated, in opening the specialised placement services for executive and professional employees:

Public placement work must be on a specialised basis, to a very large extent, in order to meet the needs of both employers and work seekers. As time goes on, we are carrying this principle of specialisation into our Employment Service more and more. (DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR, Release No. 1006, 21 Mar. 1945.)

² In *Great Britain*, where specialisation of work is favoured on the whole and is continuing to develop, the Minister of Labour warned against over-specialisation of work, particularly in regard to applications for work, stating his opposition to "too much segregation of the people who use the employment exchanges".

employment service work so that unified national policy and administration are maintained throughout the whole employment service.

But while there may be few general principles governing the use and the form of specialisation of work considered desirable or practicable within the national employment service, in practice there has been considerable similarity from one country to another in the pattern of specialisation which has been followed. The specific principles affecting the use of specialisation come out more clearly in relation to the particular problems dealt with through the arrangements for specialisation. Thus, the succeeding sections of this chapter indicate the most common types of specialisation adopted in the various employment services, and a concluding section discusses measures for co-ordinating the specialised arrangements with the general employment service work so that the employment service remains one unified administration, able to serve a single, comprehensive employment market.

OCCUPATIONAL AND INDUSTRIAL SPECIALISATION

Occupational and industrial specialisation is inevitable in any employment service. It arises out of the character of the work of the service. A worker seeking a suitable job wants to be able to find in the employment office a person who understands his technical qualifications and can evaluate his training and experience in terms of the jobs available in his industry or occupation. An employer seeking a suitable worker wants to discuss his request for workers with someone who understands the nature of his industry and undertaking and the specific occupational and job requirements needed to fill the vacancies. In the larger, more complex and diversified industrial communities, no one person can acquire enough technical familiarity with every industry and occupation to provide this type of service to the users of the employment office. This is only possible in smaller communities in which the industrial structure is relatively simple and personal familiarity with job requirements and job seekers can often compensate for less comprehensive technical knowledge. The need for occupational specialisation and the possibilities of introducing it, therefore, tend to grow side by side in accordance with the size and character of the field served by the employment office.

In the larger employment offices, where specialisation of function becomes possible, the work is often organised primarily along occupational lines, that is, with direct reference to the occupations

of the persons seeking employment and the occupational characteristics of the workers sought by employers. The specialisation may be very elementary. It may consist merely of a division of internal activities whereby certain members of the staff of the office are encouraged and allowed to become technically familiar with handling job applicants qualified for employment in specific industrial or occupational fields, all applicants in these fields being referred to them for interview, while other members of the staff deal more exclusively with employers in certain industries or industry groups and become thoroughly conversant with their requirements.

These simple arrangements for occupational specialisation are often carried further and become more formal, particularly where the size of the office allows further concentration on a functional basis and where the office has a broad and numerically important coverage of employers and workers in particular occupational and industrial groups. Thus the entire office, except such units as the central administrative and research services, may be divided formally into occupational sections. Each section then deals only with the particular occupational or industrial groups assigned to it. One specialises, for example, in the interviewing and placement of workers belonging to the engineering or metal trades, another in textiles, still another in construction and related trades, a fourth in chemicals, a fifth in clerical occupations, a sixth in unskilled heavy labour, etc. The number and demarcation of the sections will, of course, depend primarily on the needs of the local labour market. There nevertheless tends to be considerable uniformity of sectional organisation from office to office within any one employment service, because each of the larger offices has to deal with applications from the major occupational and industrial groups which constitute the functional lines of the sectional division.

Internal organisation by occupational or industrial sections has made considerable progress during the last twenty years and particularly since the 'thirties. It is now common practice in the larger employment offices of a number of countries, including for example, *Belgium, Canada, France, Denmark, Finland, Great Britain, the Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland* and the *United States*; and it is being introduced in the *Argentine, Australian, Indian* and *New Zealand* offices. In a few cases, legislation specifically authorises the organisation of occupational sections in the local (and sometimes regional) offices of the employment service; in most cases, the sections are established by administrative instructions, issued from the headquarters of the service on the basis of local experience

and frequently setting an over-all guiding pattern for sectional organisation, appropriate to the general needs of the local offices and adaptable to their specific needs.

In *Hungary* a Decree of 11 July 1946 authorises the trade unions, after approval of the Ministry of Industry, to set up employment offices, specialised by occupation, in the principal industrial centres.

Some of the most difficult problems refer, of course, to the definition of the industry or occupation or group of industries or occupations to be covered by each section of the office. For a variety of reasons the work cannot be broken up into too many different sections, yet the whole industrial and occupational structure must be covered according to some logical plan. Should the line be drawn by industries or by occupations? Sometimes the two coincide but often they do not. Which, then, is the more rational in terms of effective placement work? Is it possible and practical, within an office, to have both types of sections on the grounds that the job applicants should be classified on an occupational basis and the employers should be placed in industrial categories? Regardless of decisions taken on these questions, some sections, whether on an industry or occupational basis, will cover relatively homogeneous groups of occupations or industries, others will cover a series of loosely related occupations and industries, and still others will be the "catch-alls" into which miscellaneous and/or numerically unimportant industries or occupations are fitted. And no matter how many or how few sections are created, there are always the numerous marginal cases of applications which do not fit squarely into the existing organisation.

Experience of the operation of truly specialised occupational or industrial sections is relatively short in most countries. On the whole, however, it would seem that this form of internal office structure, besides being a practical administrative convenience in the larger offices, can have undeniable technical advantages in securing more satisfactory and more efficient service for workers and employers alike. The chief dangers that may arise lie in carrying the arrangements to the point where they tend to introduce undesirable occupational or industrial rigidity and to impede that flow of workers from one occupation and industry to another which is continuously essential in a changing industrial economy. There is no inherent reason, however, why occupational sections within any one employment office should be incompatible with labour mobility. As national experience has shown, the primary safeguard consists in the effective co-ordination of work within the employment office, so

that the sections operate as units within a whole, not in isolation, with free channels of communication and action between and among them.

Occupational specialisation may also take the form of specialised offices serving the employers and workers of a particular industry or occupation. In general, the aim of such arrangements is the same as that of the specialised sections. Such offices are set up to meet the special employment requirements of an industry or occupation or to adapt public employment service facilities to traditional methods of placement within the industry or occupation. From the point of view of organisation they differ in certain respects from the occupational sections into which a local office may be subdivided, and they represent a further stage in the specialisation of employment service work along occupational lines.

Separate offices have been set up in various countries for a number of different occupations or industries, including the building trades or construction industry, seamen, dock labour or port transport, inland navigation, railroad labour, hotel and restaurant employment, domestic service generally, agriculture and forestry, and particular professional groups such as theatrical artistes, musicians, teachers, nurses and journalists. The specialised work of these offices differs greatly according to the nature of the occupation, and their administrative relationship to the rest of the employment service also varies considerably.

It is difficult to draw any conclusions from national experience in regard to the development of specialised employment offices for employers and workers in particular occupations, but it may be interesting to note that the Final Report of the *British* Royal Commission on Unemployment Insurance, published in 1932, expressed its support of the principle of specialised exchanges and offices in the following terms:

...The development of the primary functions of the exchanges can be encouraged directly by means of improved organisation in the existing exchanges; and the establishment, where circumstances permit, of exchanges specialised to deal with particular types of occupation. The benefit of the exchange service, to employers and workers alike, is largely dependent on the degree of accuracy and speed with which the selection and submission of suitable workers can be made. This necessitates an accurate knowledge of the qualifications of individual applicants and of the requirements of employers; and an efficient service cannot be attained without specialisation and organisation in every exchange. In some cases this object may best be achieved by the establishment of specialised exchanges. This must depend on many factors which vary from trade to trade and from locality to locality, but we are so far impressed by the success attending the establishment, in London, of specialised exchanges for the building trades and for the hotel and catering

trades that we recommend that the possibilities of establishing further specialised exchanges and offices should be examined with a view to their extension.¹

Where specialised offices are set up for particular occupations, the problems of administrative co-ordination may be difficult to solve, particularly where, as is often the case, the area served is larger than or different from that served by the ordinary local employment office. But the principle of co-ordination of their work through the regular employment service machinery appears to have been widely accepted; and the problems seem manageable, even where the specialised offices are a network covering the whole country. A possible exception, and the difficulties alleged to stem from it, may be illustrated by criticisms of the separately administered railroad employment service and farm placement programme in the *United States*. Though in many respects these function smoothly, and have met with the approval of the employers and workers most directly concerned, their lack of integration with the regular United States Employment Service machinery was criticised by a former Director of the Service, who told a Senate Committee in 1945:

The local employment offices were further handicapped by the parallel existence and sometimes competition of the Railroad Employment Service of the Railroad Retirement Board. It was still further handicapped when yet another competing agency was set up in the Department of Agriculture to recruit and place farm labour... The Employment Service is precluded from participating in the placement of workers in the railroad industry or on farms.²

If, however, the principle of specialised employment exchanges or offices is favoured, and the problem of their relationship with the general employment service organisation solved, then one of the chief questions of policy centres around the selection of the occupations or industries suitable for such extended specialisation. The most successful experience of specialised employment offices has been in occupations or industries in which operations and employment have tended to be highly irregular (*e.g.*, building, dock labour, agriculture), or in occupations or industries with clearly defined professional standards and requirements (*e.g.*, teaching or nursing). As regards the former group, it seems likely that the present efforts towards decasualisation of employment will include specialised employment service arrangements in many countries. As to the latter,

¹ Cmd. 4185 (London, 1932), para. 591: "Specialised Exchanges".

² U.S. 69th Congress, First Session, Senate: *Hearings before a Subcommittee of the Committee on Education and Labor, on the U.S. Employment Service, November 1945* (Washington, 1946), pp. 42 and 48.

it seems likely that the development of specialised placement facilities for technical, professional and supervisory workers may eliminate the need for specific types of occupational specialisation for particular groups of these workers and that such arrangements as exist will tend to be merged into this more general structure. This appears to be the trend, for example, in respect of the specialised arrangements for teachers in *Sweden* and nurses in *Great Britain*. Within these general limits, however, the selection of the occupations and industries in which specialised offices or exchanges seem necessary or desirable will vary according to the specific requirements of each nation's occupational or industrial structure.

In view of the considerations suggested above, the Governments are consulted on the following points:

11. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide that the employment service should organise its activities primarily on an occupational basis, that is, with direct reference to the occupations of the persons seeking employment and the occupational characteristics of the workers required by employers?*

(b) *If so, do you consider that this should be done in general through internal arrangements within the employment offices, that is, through sections specialised in filling employers' orders for and in placing workers belonging to certain occupations, industries or groups of industries?*

(c) *In addition, do you consider that provision should be made for separate employment offices to be set up for workers in certain industries and occupations?*

(d) *If the answer to question 11 (c) is affirmative, do you consider that such arrangements might usefully be made, according to national circumstances, for any or all of the following industries or occupations:*

- (i) *port transport (dock labour)?*
- (ii) *merchant marine (seafarers)?*
- (iii) *railroads?*
- (iv) *building and civil engineering?*
- (v) *agriculture and forestry?*
- (vi) *domestic service?*
- (vii) *teaching?*
- (viii) *nursing?*

SPECIALISED ARRANGEMENTS FOR PARTICULAR CATEGORIES OF WORKERS

A further method of adapting employment service work to specific employment market needs consists in making specialised arrangements for particular categories of job seekers. These arrangements differ from those noted in the preceding section in that they are not organised on an occupational or industrial basis but cover workers who belong to groups defined by age, handicap, or other characteristic tending to set them off in some way from the main stream of applicants for employment and to require a certain amount of specialised service to ensure suitable placement. Specialisation of employment service work along these lines is most prevalent at the present time on behalf of juveniles; technical, professional and executive workers of all kinds; disabled persons; and ex-service personnel.

Arrangements for Juveniles

In a number of countries, the employment service has made specialised arrangements for dealing with juvenile applicants for employment; in other countries, the placement of young workers is handled by the educational or vocational guidance authorities rather than by the employment service; and in still other countries, responsibilities in this field are shared between the employment service and one or more of the other authorities concerned with the education, guidance and employment of juveniles. The following account relates above all to the special arrangements for juveniles made by or under the auspices of the various employment services.

Specialised employment service arrangements for juveniles as a separate group in the employment market originate primarily in the need to integrate youth placement with education and pre-employment training of all kinds and in particular with all forms of vocational guidance. While it is recognised that the schools must play or continue to play a vital role in this field, it is being more widely recognised that specialised employment service work for juveniles provides a focal point for the development and co-ordination of vocational guidance, linking it with the practical conclusion of guidance, that is, placement in suitable employment, in a way which could not be done by the educational system alone. To meet the needs of juveniles entering or changing employment, therefore, the employment service must acquire considerable specialised

knowledge; it must organise a variety of special contacts and administrative links with the educational authorities and with other youth welfare and employment agencies; and it must develop methods of work and techniques appropriate for dealing with new entrants into employment. These are the main reasons behind the organisation of special juvenile sections within employment offices or separate juvenile employment offices or bureaux either as part of the employment service proper or with some fixed relationship to it.

Psychological or moral factors may also be involved in national measures to organise specialised employment arrangements for juveniles. It has sometimes been considered useful, for example, to protect this group of work seekers from the atmosphere of an employment office filled with unemployed adults or to shield young girls from unsuitable work involving separation from their parents. Certainly, from a psychological standpoint, the placement of youngsters just leaving school and entering upon a working career raises special problems which cannot be met in a wholly satisfactory manner by non-specialist employment service staff. A further reason for making special arrangements for juveniles is that many jobs in a wide variety of industries and occupations become earmarked for young workers; it has been considered easier to fill such jobs satisfactorily, and easier to convince employers to recruit through the employment service, where there are specialised sections of offices dealing exclusively with juvenile entrants into the employment market. In addition, the satisfactory employment of young persons, all of whom are inexperienced workers, requires more regular and systematic follow-up than has yet been attempted for all job seekers and a specialised after-placement supervision which would be inappropriate for all workers. Finally, there is an increasingly deep public concern with methods of ensuring that young workers have full opportunities for entering the most suitable employment available to them and making the most of their education, training and capacities in their working life, coupled with a widely held belief that this calls for specialised facilities able to provide careful guidance. This factor has been of special importance in the recent reforms of juvenile employment service work and in the re-establishment of such arrangements in European countries which have taken place since the end of the war.

The administrative organisation of specialised youth placement arrangements varies considerably from one country to another. A few examples of national practice, selected to illustrate the different

types of arrangements now in use and their relationship with the general employment service structure, are given below.

In *Australia* arrangements for youth placement were in the hands of the States, in some of which specialised services had been developed linking together education, vocational guidance, placement and follow-up supervision. With Commonwealth wartime employment controls, all children 14 years of age and over were required to register at a national service office and those leaving school were required to attend for interview. The manpower authorities worked in collaboration with the State education authorities, and official policy was to give prime consideration to the child's future in placing him in useful work, and to try to reconcile the abilities and ambitions of boys and girls and their parents' wishes with available wartime opportunities. The recently established Commonwealth Employment Service plans to include a special counselling and placement service to assist juveniles and their parents in the choice of a career; and a number of the States (*e.g.*, New South Wales and Queensland) are continuing their schemes for helping youth to choose and enter suitable employment.

In *Belgium* a special scheme for youth placement and guidance, co-ordinated with the work of the employment service and the educational system, was worked out late in 1945 and is now being put into effect. Offices of the youth placement service had been opened in Brussels, Charleroi, and Liège by August 1946, and in three months of operation had received some 10,000 requests for assistance from young people aged 14 to 25 years. In October 1946, offices of this kind had been opened in 8 cities. The basic aim of the service is to help juveniles and young workers to find stable employment conforming to their tastes and qualifications or potentialities; consequently, the provision of vocational guidance by trained counsellors of the service is one of its most important functions.

In *Canada* youth placement fell largely to the provinces, which had adopted a variety of arrangements for the guidance and placement of juveniles, but a survey of the Canadian Youth Commission indicated that about two thirds of the country's young people aged 15 to 24 years had found their present jobs through their own efforts or those of their families. During the last war years, the placement of all juvenile workers was handled through the employment and selective service offices, which had no specialised youth branches; this was done not from principle but because there had been no time to provide separately for juveniles at a time when

the whole selective service structure had to be built up almost overnight and to work under constant pressure. Special rules were enforced in the placement of those under 16 years. Since the end of the war, plans for specialised youth placement within the Employment Service have been taking shape. At the beginning of 1946, a Council for Youth Guidance and Placement was set up in Ottawa, aiming at wider co-operation between educational guidance in schools and the occupational guidance and placement work of the National Employment Service. In the larger local offices, special youth departments are being set up. In Montreal, for example, a trained staff of 14 persons are responsible for the youth division of the office, and a youth council, representative of youth and youth-serving organisations in the city, is to advise the division. The young persons may register at any suboffice in the city, their applications are routed to the youth division, and they are then summoned for a special interview, which will include guidance.

In *Czechoslovakia* measures for the protection of youth worked out by the Ministry of Social Welfare in 1945 included arrangements for special youth sections within the employment offices, staffed by specially qualified personnel, including social workers. The task of the youth sections, working through the facilities of the whole employment office, would be to place young people in employment according to their wishes, talents and physical fitness, and to investigate and supervise the conditions in which they would be employed.

The *Finnish* Act of 1936 respecting the employment service authorised the Ministry of Social Affairs, after consultation with the appropriate local authorities, to direct that a special section should be set up in the local employment offices for finding employment for young persons and for providing them with vocational guidance.¹ Such sections had been established in a number of the larger towns before the war, and while the system was little used during the war, the Government has recently made plans to revise and extend youth placement arrangements as soon as possible.

In *France* the placement of juveniles has been entrusted largely to the vocational guidance offices which were originally set up, in accordance with an Act of 1922, to assist the public employment offices in their task of finding suitable employment for job seekers. Since the war, efforts have been made to reorganise the facilities

¹ The Act of 1936 also specifies that where the local offices have established a special department for young persons, a special subcommittee for its management shall be appointed, which shall include a representative of the educational system and private youth welfare associations.

provided for youth placement. Up to 1946, only the Paris region had organised specialised offices for placing young workers (one for each sex), and the operations of these offices were considered to be unsatisfactory in many respects, more particularly because they had no relations with the manpower and vocational training services. No effort was made to place young workers in apprenticeship, to follow up the placements made or to develop other forms of youth assistance, and most of the placements made were of 16-18 year old juveniles in unskilled work. In 1946, therefore, the central Directorate-General of Labour and Manpower took up the question comprehensively. The first step was to set up a special selection centre in Paris charged with the placement of young workers aged 16 to 18 years and of handicapped workers; the centre provides facilities for medical examination, guidance and psycho-technical testing, placement, and vocational training. It is proposed to establish similar centres, similarly equipped for expert service to young workers, in Lyons, Marseille, Lille, Rouen, Bordeaux and Toulouse.¹

In *Great Britain* specialised work for juveniles has been a part of the employment exchange service since the inception of the service in 1909. The work has been done in two ways: in areas where the local education authorities choose to exercise their powers to undertake the work and submit a scheme approved by the Ministry of Labour, through a juvenile employment bureau under the supervision of a juvenile employment committee; and in other areas, through a juvenile department of the employment exchange of the Ministry of Labour under the supervision of a juvenile advisory committee. At the end of March 1945, 104 local education authorities were operating juvenile employment services, while in the rest of the country these services were being conducted as a part of the Ministry of Labour's employment exchange service. While in practice both types of organisation worked well in any given area, it was equally true that the division of responsibility for operating specialised services for youth raised many problems preventing the development of an effective national juvenile employment service. Before the war, it was estimated that only about 30 per cent. of the country's juveniles were assisted into employment by the juvenile employment system, while the remaining 70 per cent. found

¹ There is also a special youth placement centre in Strasbourg, dealing with apprentices in particular, but the position in this city is rather special, in that all youth guidance and placement work is centred in the employment service, whereas in the rest of France guidance is primarily the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, and placement that of the Ministry of Labour.

work by chance or through non-official agencies. As the result of a comprehensive enquiry by a representative and expert committee, which issued its report in 1945¹, the system is now undergoing revision. A central Juvenile Employment Executive has been set up, responsible to the Ministry of Labour and consisting of officers of this Ministry, the Ministry of Education and the Scottish Education Department. Among its functions will be that of determining questions of policy and issuing instructions binding both on the local offices of the Ministry of Labour and on the education authorities operating the service on behalf of the Ministry, thereby ensuring a properly integrated national service functioning with a common minimum standard of efficiency in each area of the country. Control of the service on a regional basis will fall to the regional offices of the Ministry of Labour, which already were responsible for supervising the local juvenile employment work done through the Ministry; this is a further integration of the specialised juvenile arrangements with the general employment service machinery of the Ministry. The Minister of Labour is responsible to Parliament for the service as a whole and the cost of the service is borne on the vote of the Ministry of Labour. A strengthened network of advisory committees will aid the juvenile employment service at every level of operation. A National Advisory Council on Juvenile Employment is to be set up, and special advisory committees will work in Scotland and Wales. At the local level, the local advisory committees (now all known as juvenile employment committees) will be retained as part of the machinery of the juvenile employment service and will still have considerable powers of initiative to develop the local work of the service as they see fit. The main functions of the service are: (1) the provision of vocational guidance (the Government proposes to enact legislation to require the juveniles leaving school or reaching the age of 17 to be registered, and when registered to attend the service for interview); (2) the placement of young workers in employment suited to their qualifications, aptitudes, interests, health and character, leading to a suitable career, and such that the limited supply of juveniles is distributed in accord with national needs; and (3) replacements in employment and follow-up supervision of a general character aimed at ensuring that really satisfactory results have been attained. The type of service which the Ministry of Labour hopes to develop

¹ MINISTRY OF LABOUR AND NATIONAL SERVICE: *Report of the Committee on the Juvenile Employment Service* (London, 1945).

through this reorganisation of the existing arrangements was summarised in the report of the Committee in the following words:

... A juvenile employment service must see the growing adolescent through every aspect of his work environment; it must be in a position to exercise effective supervision over him at work; it must re-advise and re-place him if necessary; it must take an active interest in the arrangements made within industry for his training and progress; it must have really adequate knowledge about occupations and their requirements; and it must know, not merely on paper but in fact, what goes on in industrial establishments and other places of employment... The service is both educational and industrial; it starts in the school and moves progressively over into the world of employment where industrial considerations predominate.

In *Hungary*, in virtue of Orders 6490 of 1945 and 3530 of 1946 and of the Decree of the Minister of Industry 48400 of 1946, the placement of apprentices in Greater Budapest and surrounding areas is undertaken by the Trade Union Council and in other places by the employment offices. The employment offices or their branches are to establish special sections for the placement of apprentices.

In *India* liaison is being established between the new employment exchange organisation and the educational authorities, largely with the aid of the employment advisory committees. As the employment exchange system develops and its scope can be extended to cover all categories of job seekers, special attention is to be paid to establishing the type of service needed to meet the needs of juvenile applicants for work, including their vocational guidance towards suitable employment careers and away from those clearly unsuitable for young workers.

In *Luxembourg* the development of specialised employment service arrangements for juveniles is a task which has been stressed by the Minister of Labour as part of the post-war youth programme.

In the *Netherlands* provision was made before the war for the establishment of specialised employment and guidance offices for juveniles, co-ordinated with the local public employment service and with the schools. Juvenile offices had been set up in various towns, but the service was not organised on a central basis and not extended to the smaller communities. Since 1945, the Government has been giving consideration to the reorganisation of youth guidance and placement arrangements, with a view to extending them considerably and widening their use by juveniles leaving school and entering employment for the first time or changing jobs.

New Zealand's youth placement arrangements have been worked out largely by the educational, rather than the employment service

authorities, and have been carried out by special vocational guidance centres set up in the larger communities. Each of these centres has a range of activities corresponding closely to those of a juvenile employment office, including occupational information, guidance, placement in employment and follow-up supervision. It is not yet clear whether the National Employment Service, now being developed, will take over this work for juveniles as its machinery comes into full operation, or whether the present arrangements will persist; but the need for maintenance and further expansion of specialised guidance and placement work for juveniles, closely linked with the employment facilities for all workers, has been fully recognised by the Minister of Employment.

In *Norway* a highly developed scheme of youth guidance and placement had been established in Oslo before the war; in determining the aptitudes of the juveniles and in selecting a suitable career of work or further training for them, there was systematic collaboration between the local employment offices and the schools.

In *Sweden* specialised arrangements for juveniles are an integral part of the employment service proper. In 1940, when this service was reorganised on a central national basis under the State Employment Market Commission, only a few of the larger towns had set up special sections for juveniles (under 18 years of age) and special student employment exchanges operated in Stockholm, Göteborg and the two university towns of Uppsala and Lund. The functioning of both of these services was unsatisfactory, and the Commission immediately made plans to equip the juvenile and student exchanges more adequately for their work and to extend their services over the whole country. At present (1946), a centre for the vocational classification and guidance of juveniles has been set up in the principal employment office of every province, and specialised branches operate in a number of large towns. Specially trained managers and staff have been provided for these centres, able to act as vocational guidance officers, in particular, and if need be as employment officers. Both the juvenile and the student exchanges are integrated with the reorganised placement service for teachers set up within the national employment service; this arrangement has proved of special value in promoting vocational guidance, because it has forged direct contacts with teachers and school authorities. Vocational guidance has assumed the basic role in juvenile employment service work and includes the general orientation of school children and other young people, individual guidance for school leavers and students, and practical measures aimed at

helping young people to carry out their vocational plans. The informational function of the employment service is also emphasised, and follow-up after placement is considered a matter of vital importance.

In *Switzerland* the vocational guidance and placement of juveniles has fallen to the vocational guidance offices, but these have worked in close touch with the cantonal system of employment offices, on the basis of arrangements worked out between the two authorities at the cantonal level. It is estimated that in 1942 as many as 58 per cent. of the juveniles entering employment had received assistance from the various vocational guidance offices. The Federal authorities responsible for the employment service encourage the provision of these specialised youth guidance and placement facilities by the grant of a subsidy.

In the *Union of South Africa* juvenile employment arrangements are being reorganised and expanded in compliance with the Registration for Employment Act, 1945, which repealed the Juveniles Employment Act, 1921, but carries on its basic machinery. The 1945 Act provides that the Minister of Labour may set up for any area a juvenile affairs board to deal with matters "affecting the employment, training, welfare and supervision of juvenile work seekers within such area". Each board consists of 6 to 18 members, of whom one third are nominated by employers' organisations, one third by the trade unions, and one third by educational and social associations. Within its area, the board is required to maintain a register of all juvenile work seekers and record particulars of their placement, unemployment, and job changes (as required for adults as well under the Act). Principals of the schools are required to furnish the board with the names of school leavers and those who have reached the age at which school leaving is permissible. The board must also "conduct and carry on an employment office for juvenile work seekers" and make available information and provide advice for affording guidance to them and their guardians in regard to the choice of employment. It is also responsible for exercising a general and continuing supervision over the juveniles after their placement.

In the *United States* special employment offices, operated either by schools or by the local public employment service office, were set up over a period of many years in a number of cities and towns, principally in the larger industrial areas. In some of the States, the Education Departments, through the local schools, have worked out a well-developed system of youth placement linked with voca-

tional guidance. In most of the States, however, less has been done and the matter has been left to the initiative of the local school, which far too often had neither the resources nor the will to maintain any systematic scheme of youth placement. The Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933 charged the United States Employment Service with the promotion and maintenance of "a national system of employment offices for men, women and juniors who are legally qualified to engage in gainful occupations", and at first its efforts to fulfil its responsibilities towards youth took the form of separate junior placement offices, only loosely integrated with the work of the local employment offices proper in the towns in which they were located. In recent years, the national policy of the Employment Service has been to discourage separate youth placement offices, partly because it is thought that a separate office would tend to have access only to the less desirable jobs and partly for administrative reasons, but to encourage special employment office work for juveniles, the degree of specialisation on youth problems as such varying with the type and size of the community and the availability of trained staff. This policy is based on the following arguments: (a) as in the case of adults, not every young person is in need of very specialised placement advice and where there is no need, nothing is gained by specialised placement arrangements; (b) where the juvenile does need special help — either because of his inexperience or immaturity or for some other reason — he can receive this help from a vocational guidance counsellor, though the placement is made through the normal employment office channels; (c) in most localities, particularly the smaller ones, the employment service is unable to provide highly trained specialists for youth counselling; hence, a juvenile uncertain whether to continue at school or to go to work, or about to take his first job, would find more adequate help through a school guidance system.

The Children's Bureau of the Federal Security Agency, after studying the youth placement operations of the employment service and those of the educational authorities, has come to the conclusion that either can be made to work equally well, but that it is important to clarify responsibilities and functions in the whole field of youth guidance and placement. Recently steps have been taken nationally to set up a co-ordinating committee to study the problems of improving the services available to youth, including the employment services. This committee, known as the Inter-agency Committee on Youth Employment and Education, is composed of representatives of Federal agencies whose programmes

particularly concern youth: the Department of Agriculture; the Department of Labor, including the Apprentice Training Service, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Division of Labor Standards and its Child Labor and Youth Employment Branch, the United States Employment Service and the Women's Bureau; and the Federal Security Agency, including the Office of Community War Services, the United States Office of Education, the Bureau of Employment Security, Division of Public Assistance, and the Children's Bureau. In a recent report the Committee formulated principles which recognise public responsibility at the Federal, State and local levels for adequate placement services for inexperienced young persons. It proposed a programme which should include counselling with regard to employment, individualised placement and follow-up and study of community facilities and opportunities for the employment of youth. These basic placement services to young people would be provided through organised placement services in co-operation with the schools and other interested community agencies.¹

The International Labour Conference has already endorsed the principle of specialised employment service work for juveniles. The Unemployment (Young Persons) Recommendation, 1935, includes the following paragraphs:

36. The national system of public employment exchanges should include special local and central arrangements for the placing of juveniles.

37. Placing services for juveniles:

- (a) should seek to place juveniles in suitable occupations as defined in paragraph 2 (2); and
- (b) should either include a vocational guidance department or be co-ordinated with independent bodies for vocational guidance.

38. Employers should be required to notify the local placing service for juveniles of vacancies for juveniles and of any engagements of juveniles which they have made without recourse to the placing service.

39. Placing services for juveniles should be required:

- (a) to supervise, in co-operation with vocational guidance services, apprenticeship committees and similar bodies, the results of the placings made, with a view to obtaining information likely to further the occupational prospects of juveniles; and
- (b) to maintain close relations with all other public and private institutions interested in young persons and notably with the education authorities.

40. In the development of placing services for young persons of 18 years of age and over, provision should be made whenever possible for assisting such persons in their occupational readjustment.

¹ *Educational and Employment Opportunities for Youth*, Report and Recommendations of the Interagency Committee on Youth Employment and Education to the Director of War Mobilization and Reconversion, Sept. 1946.

In addition, at the 27th Session of the Conference (Paris, 1945) the resolution adopted on the protection of children and young workers included a special section on juvenile placement, Paragraph 21 of which reads as follows:

21. (1) In order that young persons may be placed in the employment where they can best utilise their aptitudes and resources, gain a good livelihood and enjoy personal satisfaction in their work, the employment service in each country should provide special arrangements for the placing of juveniles, directly or in co-operation with other appropriate agencies, in accordance with a co-ordinated programme under the leadership of the employment service; the chief purposes of these arrangements should be —

- (a) to offer to young persons who are seeking employment or who wish to change from one employment to another, free vocational guidance which would take into account their special aptitudes, the general economic situation and existing employment possibilities, and which would supplement the guidance which these young persons received at school in the course or at the end of their studies, as provided for by paragraph 11 (b) above¹, close collaboration being maintained with educational authorities for this purpose;
- (b) to place them in employment or help them to change their employment;
- (c) to maintain contact with the young workers who have been placed by the service in order to give them the opportunity of discussing their problems with experienced advisers and to help them to solve these problems;

(2) This employment service should be entrusted to a special staff and advised by bodies composed of representatives of other public authorities, of employers, of trade unions and of young workers.

Arrangements for Technical, Professional and Supervisory Workers

The development of suitable public placement facilities for men and women qualified to undertake responsible work in a technical, professional or managerial capacity has always tended to lag far behind the provision of similar facilities for industrial workers. Though the need for such facilities was increasingly appreciated in the year preceding the outbreak of war in 1939, little had been done to find the ways and means of adapting public employment service work to the requirements of these groups. War needs led to considerable improvement in this position in a number of countries.

¹ Free vocational guidance services, offered through the school or the employment service and available to all adolescents during their years of school attendance and at the time when they leave school, the use of such facilities being encouraged as the best means of helping young persons to choose suitable careers, in keeping with the provisions of paragraph 37 (b) of the Unemployment (Young Persons) Recommendation, 1935, and paragraph 32 (1) of the Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944.

The scarcity of many categories of professional, technical and scientific workers urgently needed in the war effort and the existence of serious unemployment among other categories of these workers combined to bring about better and more co-ordinated public employment service facilities to meet the placement requirements of these men and women.

These specialised arrangements have been made primarily because the local employment office area has proved too restricted, as a rule, to deal satisfactorily with the smaller numbers of applicants for employment falling within the technical, professional and managerial categories. In addition, the methods of work needed for these groups have been found to differ from those suitable for most categories of industrial workers, largely because assessment of the qualifications required for employment in technical, professional and managerial work is extremely difficult and requires specialised knowledge, and the vacancies must be filled with equally specialised competence owing to the responsibility of many of the posts sought or offered. For many of these occupations, the employment field is national or regional, not local, and for most of them, it is technical in character. In a number of countries it has therefore seemed logical to attempt to centralise the work in offices covering larger areas and able to specialise in making higher appointments.

The functions of the specialised machinery set up in the various countries for technical, professional and supervisory employees tend to parallel the activities of the general employment service. They include, as a rule, the assembly of information, vocational guidance, interviewing, organisation of contacts with employers, placement (including special clearance systems), and follow-up activities. In many countries (such as *Great Britain*, for example) particular stress is being laid on the importance of the vocational guidance activities undertaken for these groups of workers. Moreover, the Appointments Department in Great Britain has worked out new methods of classifying vacancies and assessing applicants which, it is believed, will help considerably in selecting the most suitable persons for the available jobs, and may lend itself to extension in the placement work of the employment exchange network. In all the countries where placement work for the professional, technical and supervisory group is expanding, it is realised that the success of the work will depend in large part on the extent to which the offices manage to convince the workers and employers concerned that the public employment service can provide high

quality service in this field; in other words, that the placements are handled by employment service staff fully competent to assess accurately the job requirements and the qualifications of those seeking work. This means that they must be officials who possess, or have access to, the best technical advice available in their occupational field.¹ Consequently, a question of special practical significance in the organisation of placement arrangements for technical, professional and supervisory employees is the staffing of the specialised offices or units on a high enough level so that they may be equipped, technically and from a selection standpoint, to carry out the type of work required of them.

In a number of countries extensive use is being made of specialised advisory committees in the placement work done for technical, professional and supervisory workers. In most cases, these committees are set up on a national and regional level. There are two main kinds: first, the co-ordinating general committees, either national or regional, representative of all the technical and professional organisations chiefly concerned, of the universities and technical institutions, and of the general employers' organisations and trade unions; and secondly, the various technical committees set up for the main occupational fields represented in the work of the specialised placement agencies for technical, professional and supervisory workers.

Where specialised arrangements for professional, technical and supervisory workers exist, the line of demarcation between their use and the use of the ordinary facilities of the employment service is rather hard to draw in theory. The *British Committee on Higher Appointments* came to the conclusion that classifications based on income remuneration or on particular occupations were both unsatisfactory and that the most practicable procedure was to draw the line at the foreman and clerk level. In *Sweden* occupation rather than income is the criterion in the arrangements for salaried workers and academic qualifications are not stressed, but emphasis is placed on making the arrangements available to the widest number of persons who seem capable of benefiting from them. *Canada* has adopted a definition based both on remuneration and on training or occupation. In practice, however, the coverage of the specialised arrangements for technical, professional and supervisory personnel is somewhat easier to determine, since most countries

¹ In *Great Britain*, for example, the special appointments suboffices for nurses not only include trained departmental staff for the placing of nurses but also a qualified professional nurse, able to assist on any special technical problems that arise in the work of the suboffice.

accept the view that there will and should be considerable overlapping and that trial and error will provide the only clue. Some line of demarcation is nevertheless essential from the beginning in order to avoid misunderstanding among employers and workers, and unnecessary duplication of effort within the employment service machinery.

Under the circumstances, the co-ordination of specialised facilities for technical, professional and supervisory workers with the ordinary employment service structure becomes of peculiar significance. In *Australia, Canada, Great Britain, India and Sweden*, this is done or to be done largely through the regional administration of the employment service. The regional offices of the regular employment service are made responsible for supervising and controlling the work of the specialised offices for technical and professional workers. As was pointed out by the British Committee on Higher Appointments, this is the only way by which complete co-ordination may be achieved. In addition, however, it is essential to develop close relations between the facilities for technical and professional workers and the local employment offices within each region. This requires that vacancies which might go to either type of office should go automatically to both and that job applicants who might be qualified for such vacancies should be fully entitled to register with either type of office they wish or with both. Where the technical and professional placement work for any given occupation is centralised on a wholly national basis, and not delegated to the regional level, the task of co-ordinating the work with the rest of the employment service will fall to the headquarters of the service. In any case, the headquarters office tends to exert considerable influence on the development of the specialised arrangements in this field, because of the more centralised and technical character of the employment market covered by such arrangements.

In *Australia* the first specialised arrangements for placing technical and professional workers grew out of urgent war requirements. A representative scientific and technical manpower committee was set up, with numerous subcommittees, to deal with the allocation to employment of scientists and engineers; this committee acted as a kind of arbiter in cases of competition for the services of individuals and also recommended the placements of graduates of universities and technical colleges. With the setting up during 1946 of the new Commonwealth Employment Service, it is planned to establish in each State headquarters a higher appointments office of the Service which will deal solely with technicians, managerial, execu-

tive, scientific and professional personnel, university graduates and the higher grades of clerical workers.

In *Canada*, too, the progress made by the Wartime Bureau of Technical Personnel with specialised placement work for technical personnel for war purposes served as an incentive and basis for the peacetime arrangements. A specialised placement division of the National Employment Service for executive and professional employees was established during 1945. The division operates through regional executive and professional offices (of which there are now five), which supervise the work of placing executive and professional workers done by special divisions of the larger local offices in the regions. In general, the persons handled through these specialised arrangements are persons excluded from unemployment insurance and qualified for executive and office positions, women whose normal earnings are \$1,800 or more per year, graduates of universities or other institutions of higher learning and other persons with technical or professional training who customarily earn at least \$1,800 per year. At the end of March 1946, there were 1,020 openings registered in the executive and professional offices and 1,758 applicants listed as available. From the opening of the offices up to April 1946, 6,000 persons had been referred to employment and 4,480 placed in permanent employment at annual salaries above \$2,400. The Bureau of Technical Personnel became an employment service for highly qualified scientific and technical personnel on the relaxation of the National Selective Service Civilian Regulations in December 1945, and has been of particular value to returning veterans. It works largely on a centralised Dominion basis.

In *Finland* the Ministry of Social Affairs is authorised to direct that a special department of the employment service be set up for the purpose of finding employment for intellectual workers.

In *France* there is one specialised employment office for technicians, whose operations cover the Paris area. Since March 1946, moreover, there has also been a National Re-employment Centre charged with organising the replacement of displaced civil servants; the Centre operates under the supervision of the Directorate of Labour and Manpower of the Ministry of Labour and carries on its work through local sections in all the departments. No public authorities may make any engagements without the approval of the Centre except in the case of persons recruited by competitive examination. The Directorate is now organising along the same lines (national centre and departmental sections) a general placement service for all kinds of technical and professional workers.

In *Great Britain* specialised employment exchange work for particular professional groups had been very limited indeed before the war. During the war, the Ministry of Labour set up a Central Register and an Appointments Register, which were later placed in an Appointments Department of the Ministry, divided into two branches — the one, the Central (Technical and Scientific) Register, operating centrally and dealing with fully qualified professional engineers, scientists and the like, and the other, the Appointments Branch, decentralised to 31 offices and serving the less highly qualified professional, technical and managerial persons and such highly qualified persons as were not included among the categories dealt with by the Central Register. To make these arrangements as effective as possible for peacetime, a special committee was set up in 1943 and presented its report to Parliament in January 1945¹; the report was accepted, in the main, by the Government and has since been implemented. Thus the Appointments Department of the Ministry of Labour now exists on a permanent basis. It is divided into the two branches indicated above, except that, following the committee's recommendation, the number of appointments offices has been reduced to 13, located at the same places as the regional offices of the Ministry of Labour and National Service and in Liverpool and Glasgow. Suboffices of the regional appointments offices deal with nurses and midwives; there is a nurses' appointments office in every regional headquarters town and some 20 others throughout the country, and their work is controlled by the appropriate regional appointments office. In April 1946, the total number of vacancies outstanding on the Technical and Scientific Register was 4,253 and the number of unemployed registrants was 1,393; comparable figures for the Appointments Register were 6,021 and 41,098 respectively. Particulars concerning candidates are considered against the appropriate vacancies (including those circulated from other appointments offices) by a careful process of "screening" and are extracted from the record and sent to the prospective employer for his final selection. Special stress is laid on carrying out the work of the whole Department in close contact with those concerned, and the policy of the Department in relation to each main profession, industry or section of commerce is framed with the

¹ MINISTRY OF LABOUR AND NATIONAL SERVICE: *Higher Appointments*, Cmd. 6576 (London, 1945). The Committee, which met under the chairmanship of Lord Hankey, included representatives of a number of professional and technical associations and of employers' organisations, trade unions, the Co-operative Wholesale Society and the civil service.

help of national standing advisory committees. There is, in addition, a central advisory committee for the Department as a whole.

The Government of *India* took the first steps towards developing specialised employment offices for technical personnel in 1943. It is interesting to note that this took place despite the lack of an employment service for all workers and constituted a stimulus to the development of the general service. Special appointments branches of the employment exchange service, set up to deal with applicants for higher grades of administrative, managerial, professional and technical appointments have now been opened at the central and regional employment exchanges. The work is to be organised in the closest co-ordination with the regular employment exchanges and placed under the same headquarters and regional management and control. The central employment exchange in New Delhi issues fortnightly lists of ex-service personnel who wish to be considered for higher posts and distributes these lists to Central and provincial Government departments, employers' organisations and larger employers. The central exchange also handles the placement of the temporary clerical staff retrenched from Government of India departments in Delhi.

In *Switzerland* the Federal authorities have set up a special employment office to advise and re-employ Government employees discharged as the result of the contraction of public employment connected with military mobilisation and the war economy.

For many years *Sweden* has given attention to the development of a special placement service for salaried workers within the framework of the public employment service. A number of separate specialised employment offices were first set up for students and teachers. The next step forward followed the 1940 centralisation of the whole employment service; special employment departments were set up for office workers in the principal towns, and in two cities (Stockholm and Göteborg) special departments were set up for technicians and engineers. In 1944 the State Employment Market Commission put forward a comprehensive plan for co-ordinating these facilities and for developing specialised employment service arrangements on a national scale for persons in "the more intellectual occupations", defined in the widest sense to include salaried workers, whether university or college-trained or not, in administrative and supervisory grades in both public and private employment, office workers, scientific and technical workers, agricultural and forestry officials, and teachers. The occupation, rather than the

income level has been taken as the criterion for determining the coverage of the new service.

In the *United States* the Employment Service has always considered that it had responsibility for serving professional workers, and before the war a number of its larger local offices had specialised sections for such workers. In June 1940 the National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel was established as a division of the Bureau of Placement. The Roster is organised on a central national basis and was used to mobilise professional and technical personnel for war service, placing some 50,000 highly qualified persons in important work between June 1940 and the end of 1944. Special co-operative arrangements were worked out to facilitate co-ordination between the National Roster and the local offices of the Employment Service. The Employment Service plans to expand specialised arrangements for technical and professional workers as a part of its post-war activities, but the form of such arrangements has not yet been finally determined. Meanwhile, the work continues to be carried on as a specialised aspect of local office activity in a number of the larger cities.

In the *U.S.S.R.* the allocation to employment of highly qualified technical, scientific and professional personnel is regarded as a matter of the highest importance in national administration and industrial organisation, but little information is available concerning the machinery by which this is done in the various Republics.

The preceding national examples illustrate the growing interest taken in expanding employment service work into the relatively new field of "higher appointments". A steadily increasing number of countries have introduced or plan to introduce specialised public employment service facilities for filling technical, professional and supervisory posts. In most countries, these arrangements are still in their early stages. Much of the work and machinery is still experimental, but even the limited experience accumulated up to the present seems to indicate the value and practicability of such arrangements as a permanent part of the employment service.

Arrangements for Disabled Persons

Specialised placement facilities for disabled persons have been organised by the public employment service in several countries. For the most part, these facilities have grown up within recent years to meet wartime needs; but though experience of their operation is limited, there is no doubt that they are more than a transient feature of employment service organisation.

In the majority of these countries, the specialised placement arrangements for the disabled have been made an integral part of the regular employment service machinery. The arrangements have taken the form of strengthening the employment service so that it may provide better placement work for the disabled. The general aim is to serve them through the regular channels so far as possible and yet to make available to them any specialised service they may require in order to find the jobs best suited to their capacities. In some countries, however, the machinery set up to help war veterans, including disabled veterans, to return to civil employment has been assigned responsibilities for placement. The tendency, however, has been to transfer these separate placement arrangements to the regular employment service, and to integrate them closely with the specialised work of the service on behalf of all handicapped persons.

There are two features of the specialised placement facilities for disabled persons which are worth particular comment from the standpoint of general employment service work. In the first place, the methods used to place disabled persons in employment include a new element of objective analysis of the physical capacity of the applicants for work and of the physical activities required to perform the various jobs with full efficiency. On this basis, it is becoming possible to make a selective placement of a disabled person in work in which his capacities are co-ordinated with the requirements of the job. For the first time in employment service history, standards are in process of development which may make it possible to avoid occupational misfits by reasoning rather than trial and error, and to facilitate the achievement of the best possible choice of available jobs for individuals. Secondly, the placement of disabled persons is recognised as requiring the highest human consideration, with the work done by well-trained staff, equipped with the kindness that grows from understanding rather than pity, and with the time and ability to deal with the applicant for work as a person, rather than as merely a job seeker. Both the technical and the human side of selective placement for the disabled are aspects of employment service work which may profitably be carried over into all placement work in the post-war period.

Among countries in which the employment service has established or is in process of establishing specialised placement arrangements for disabled persons are *Australia, Bulgaria, Canada, Denmark, Great Britain, Sweden*, and the *United States*. In *Chile, Switzerland*, the *Union of South Africa* and several other countries, disabled applicants for employment are placed by the regular employment

service machinery but no special facilities for this purpose have been set up within the employment service. In *Finland*, *Luxembourg* and various other European countries, the placement of war-disabled persons is entrusted to separate machinery, which, however, is required to work in co-operation with the employment service. In *France* the question of specialised placement facilities for disabled persons is now under consideration by the Directorate of Labour and Manpower. The tendency to transfer responsibility for the placement of war veterans or war-disabled persons generally from machinery separate from the employment service to the employment service itself may be illustrated by the experience of *Australia*, *Canada* and the *United States*, in each of which the employment service has now been given primary responsibility for the placement of disabled veterans, following a period of divided responsibilities during which the results were said to be not wholly satisfactory.¹

In *Australia* the Commonwealth Employment Service is developing specialised placement work for disabled persons, in order to apply the provisions of the Re-establishment and Employment Act, 1945, relating to disabled persons and because it is considered that such facilities should be a permanent part of the Employment Service. Each State office of the Service will include a special disabled persons employment office, and special sections of the district offices of the Service are responsible for providing specialised placement assistance for disabled applicants for employment, including disabled ex-service personnel.

In *Bulgaria* all disabled persons are placed in employment by special staff of the employment service, which is responsible for administering the regulation requiring public and private undertakings to employ one war-disabled person for every ten workers and salaried employees.

In *Canada* the placement of disabled persons is the responsibility of the Special Placements Division of the National Employment Service. Special placements sections, staffed by specially trained officers, have been established in the larger employment offices throughout the country, while in the smaller offices, the work is done by an employment officer who handles other types of placements as well.

¹ For a more complete description of placement facilities for disabled persons up to 1945, see I.L.O., Studies and Reports, Series E, No. 7: *The Training and Employment of Disabled Persons* (Montreal, 1945), in particular, Chapter IX.

In *Denmark* special sections have been set up in the employment offices in certain towns in order to provide more scientific and careful placement assistance to the disabled. It is planned to extend this form of organisation to other employment offices should experience in these towns indicate the desirability of so doing.

In *Great Britain* each department of the local employment exchange includes a specially trained disablement rehabilitation officer, whose special function is to assist disabled persons to secure employment or training and, where appropriate, to follow up cases to ensure that the persons concerned have been satisfactorily resettled. Under the Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, 1944, a register of disabled persons must be maintained by the Ministry of Labour, a task that falls to the local employment offices, which consider applications for enrolment on the register and give decisions as to the duration of registration. The offices also have the duty of applying other provisions of the Act, in particular those obliging employers to employ a specified quota of registered disabled persons. A National Advisory Council has been set up to advise and assist the Minister of Labour in matters relating to the employment and training of disabled persons; district disablement advisory committees have been established in employment exchange areas throughout the country, with local panels appointed by these committees to help them on specific tasks.

The Government of *India* plans to introduce specialised placement arrangements for disabled persons in the employment exchange organisation as soon as the latter is sufficiently developed. A scheme for the resettlement of disabled ex-service personnel has already been in operation for some time. Under the scheme, disabled persons register at the appropriate employment exchange (where separate registration cards are maintained for them) and are given help in finding suitable employment. It is planned that the employment exchanges shall have special sections which will deal exclusively with the advisement and placement of the disabled and the follow-up after placement.

In *Sweden* it is proposed to attach trained placement officers for disabled persons to the provincial directorates of the employment service; these officers are to visit the larger employment offices in order to interview disabled persons, provide them with employment advice and assist them to find suitable work. The State Employment Market Commission attaches the greatest importance to the development of specialised placement facilities for disabled persons as a permanent part of the country's employment service machinery.

The *United States* Employment Service has a statutory obligation, under the 1933 Wagner-Peyser Act, to provide facilities for the placement of the handicapped and for veterans, including disabled veterans. The Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 provides for effective job counselling as well as for placement facilities within the Service for veterans, including handicapped veterans. For discharging these responsibilities, the Service is organising specialised placement units within each local employment office, each unit varying in size according to the needs of the area covered by the office and to the practical possibilities of staff specialisation. These units are staffed by one or more "selective placement counsellors", a title indicating the chief emphasis of their work. It is considered important that placement work on behalf of handicapped persons should be centered in the Employment Service proper because in this way the broadest opportunities for their placement can be made available; and also that the specialised placement work should be done not only for persons with physical or mental disabilities but for all persons requiring more careful and individualised placement than is readily available in the main stream of employment office operations. The policy of the Service with respect to the selective placement of handicapped applicants for work is set forth as follows in the *Code of Federal Regulations*¹:

(a) To provide such selective placement services to handicapped applicants as are necessary to promote for them equal opportunity for employment at equal wages in competition with other workers.

(b) To determine the occupational qualifications of handicapped applicants by obtaining complete information concerning work experience, training, and personal characteristics, including physical capacities and working conditions to be avoided.

(c) To obtain only such information about disabilities as is significant for counselling and placement purposes.

(d) To provide service without requiring a medical report, but to seek the assistance of medical sources in appraising the physical capacities of handicapped applicants when necessary for providing effective services.

(e) To refer handicapped applicants to jobs suited to their physical capacities and which will not aggravate their disabilities or endanger others.

(f) To conduct educational programmes with employers, employer groups, labour unions, and the community to promote and develop employment opportunities for handicapped workers.

¹ Chapter I, Part 23, section 23.6. "Selective placement" is the term used for the over-all programme of service to the handicapped, including all services and functions provided by the local office from the time the handicapped person enters the office until he is occupationally adjusted on the job. The whole office participates in the process, not merely the personnel designated to specialise in counselling and assisting handicapped applicants.

(g) To co-ordinate its selective placement activities with those of other groups and agencies serving the handicapped.

The preceding examples of national practice testify to a significant development within the last few years of specialised employment service arrangements for disabled applicants for work. Many of these arrangements are still in their earliest stages, but some have already grown sturdy roots. The main principles governing their establishment and use are widely accepted as logical employment service organisation policy even in countries, including many European countries, where practical difficulties have so far prevented the development of specialised facilities within the employment service. It seems beyond doubt that the trend towards the organisation by the public employment service of special placement arrangements for disabled applicants will continue into the post-war period as part of the permanent machinery of employment service organisation. It may be noted in conclusion that at its 26th Session, the International Labour Conference (Philadelphia 1944) included the following paragraphs in the Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944:

General Principles

X. Disabled workers, whatever the origin of their disability, should be provided with full opportunities for rehabilitation, specialised vocational guidance, training and retraining, and employment on useful work.

Methods of Application

39. The criterion for the training and employment of disabled workers should be the employability of the worker, whatever the origin of the disability.

40. There should be the closest collaboration between medical services for the disabled and vocational rehabilitation and placement services.

41. Specialised vocational guidance for the disabled should be developed in order to make it possible to assess each disabled worker's capacity and to select the most appropriate form of employment for him.

42. (1) Wherever possible, disabled workers should receive training in company with able-bodied workers, under the same conditions and with the same pay.

(2) Training should be continued to the point where the disabled person is able to enter employment as an efficient worker in the trade or occupation for which he has been trained.

(3) Wherever practicable, efforts should be made to retrain disabled workers in their former occupations or in related occupations where their previous qualifications would be useful.

(4) Employers with suitable training facilities should be induced to train a reasonable proportion of disabled workers.

(5) Specialised training centres, with appropriate medical supervision, should be provided for those disabled persons who require such special training.

43. (1) Special measures should be taken to ensure equality of employment opportunity for disabled workers on the basis of their working capacity. Employers should be induced by wide publicity and other means, and where necessary compelled, to employ a reasonable quota of disabled workers.

(2) In certain occupations particularly suitable for the employment of seriously disabled workers, such workers should be given preference over all other workers.

(3) Efforts should be made, in close co-operation with employers' and workers' organisations, to overcome employment discriminations against disabled workers which are not related to their ability and job performance, and to overcome the obstacles to their employment including the possibility of increased liability in respect of workmen's compensation.

(4) Employment on useful work in special centres under non-competitive conditions should be made available for all disabled workers who cannot be made fit for normal employment.

44. Information should be assembled by the employment service in regard to the occupations particularly suited to different disabilities and the size, location and employability of the disabled population.

Arrangements for War Veterans

Specialised employment service arrangements for war veterans are the outgrowth of the special conditions in which this group of workers are forced to re-enter the employment market. Many of these men and women have been out of touch with the domestic employment situation for a long period of time; many are returning from military service with changed skills or new qualifications which they do not know how to relate to civilian employment opportunities; many had never worked before enlistment and they are entering the civilian labour force for the first time; others merely need friendly advice and encouragement in approaching a different kind of work life; some have psychological problems relating to their employability on which they wish help; and still others seek more general resettlement advice in connection with employment and living and working conditions. Moreover, since all countries have wished to give returning veterans full opportunities in the employment market, the national demobilisation and resettlement programmes have included special provisions concerning the re-employment of this group. Most countries with large numbers of ex-service personnel, returning prisoners or deportees have therefore taken the view that there should be special facilities to secure for these men and women full and suitable opportunities for vocational counselling and employment.

The number of countries in which specialised employment service work is done for war veterans is limited, since the problem does not arise in many countries with an employment service. Where such specialised work is done, the special facilities for veterans have been built up within the existing employment service in some cases; in other cases, they have had little systematic connection with the employment service. In the liberated countries of Europe, the re-employment problems of repatriated prisoners of war and deportees were complicated not only by the chaos of the general employment situation but also by the fact that the employment service in these countries had to be reorganised, purged of collaborationists and re-established as a part of the reconstruction machinery. In these countries, therefore, the re-employment of veterans was often handled, as in *Belgium* and *France*, through special ministries or directorates set up to ensure satisfactory repatriation and resettlement. Elsewhere, however, the chief responsibility for the placement of veterans in civil employment tended to be assigned or left to the employment service or transferred to this service as the undesirability of dual facilities and divided responsibilities became apparent. In fact, it is perhaps significant that, with the exception mentioned above, the present arrangements are now an integral part of the general employment service machinery, and the special aid to veterans is based on the principle of individualised guidance and placement by sympathetic and qualified staff trained to draw upon the resources of the whole employment service in performing veterans' placement work. In some countries, this principle was not widely accepted at the beginning and the responsibility for veterans' re-employment was either placed outside the employment service or shared among a variety of Government agencies. The resultant administrative confusion and duplication of work led to a shift towards giving the employment service greater or sole responsibility, and, so far as can be judged, this has resulted in more adequate placement work for the veterans themselves. It bears out the view that on the whole the employment needs of returned service personnel are not too specialised to be dealt with effectively through usual employment service channels, supplemented by internal arrangements for providing additional general and vocational guidance for veterans and for ensuring that the staff members with whom the veterans come into contact are qualified by experience or training to understand the types of problems which the veteran returning to civil employment is likely to encounter.

In *Australia* the need of demobilised men and women for effective placement facilities, and the clear responsibility of the Commonwealth to meet this need, were among the main immediate incentives behind the establishment of the Commonwealth Employment Service. Special provision has been made by the Service to deal with ex-service personnel, a central ex-servicemen's office has been set up in each capital city, and special units of the district offices of the Service will deal with veterans seeking employment.

In *Canada* the Reinstatement in Civil Employment Act is administered through the employment offices of the National Employment Service, which are also responsible for placing discharged service personnel in suitable jobs. In March 1944, a Veterans' Placement Officer was appointed to establish methods for the rapid placement in employment of discharged service men and women. Subsequently, the Veterans' Placement Division of the National Employment Service was set up at headquarters to supervise the application of the policies and methods worked out in co-operation with military authorities and the Department of Veterans Affairs. At the regional offices of the Employment Service, regional veterans' placement supervisors have been appointed to ensure that specialised attention is given in all local employment offices of the region to the placement of ex-service personnel. These supervisors work under the regional superintendent of the Service and, through him, with the headquarters Veterans' Placement Division, on the one hand, and with the local office managements, on the other. In all the larger local employment offices, special units, known as armed forces registration units, have been established to ensure that demobilised men and women receive prompt and adequate vocational assistance and are placed in the most suitable jobs available for them. These units are staffed by specially trained veterans' officers, themselves ex-service personnel, whose main tasks are to register and interview the returned veteran and find out his qualifications and tastes and then to draw on the resources of the rest of the employment office in finding the job most suitable for him. The units are supposed to follow up each case until the man or woman is placed in employment if this is at all possible. In the smaller offices, a special member of the staff (termed veterans' officer) is assigned the responsibility for dealing with all ex-servicemen in search of employment. At all operating levels, the Employment Service co-operates with the offices of the Department of Veterans Affairs, which has the primary responsibility for veterans' re-establishment. These offices refer veterans to the employment offices for placement, and

the latter have been instructed to work closely with the citizens rehabilitation committees set up across Canada.¹ The present division of responsibilities between the Employment Service and the Department of Veterans Affairs grew out of a period of experimentation, characterised by less well-defined allocation of the placement function and, in consequence, a certain amount of duplication of effort.

In *France* special placement offices for repatriated prisoners of war were in operation during 1944. The Ministry of Labour considered, however, that these offices constituted an obstacle to the effective application of the law granting employment preference to prisoners of war, political and forced labour deportees and assimilated groups, and that the preference could not be enforced without a centralisation of vacancies. Under these arrangements there tended to be competition between the regular employment offices and the special offices for prisoners and others. As a result, the special offices have now been abolished and the regular employment offices have full responsibility for the placement of former prisoners and deportees.

In *Great Britain* special resettlement advice centres have been set up as an extension of the existing employment exchange service of the Ministry of Labour. The centres provide general assistance of all kinds to returning service men and women, but the actual placement of veterans in civil employment is done through regular employment exchange channels. It is considered that these exchanges are equipped to provide full opportunities for ex-service personnel, and that no special adaptation of their service, other than the setting up of the advice centres as a part of the employment exchange, is necessary. The Ministry of Labour has opposed the setting up of specialised registers of ex-service men and women in the exchanges; and the Minister of Labour (then Mr. Bevin) has expressed the conviction that "too much segregation of the people who use the employment exchanges" was an undesirable development which would

¹ In the report of the Government of *Canada* on the application of the Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944, the employment service arrangements for veterans were commended in the following terms:

The employment offices have played an important part in the re-establishment in civil life of thousands of members of the forces, particularly in the case of those who were in search of employment. Moreover, the offices have participated — directly or indirectly — in other phases of the re-establishment programme, in the field of counselling veterans, in carrying out the provisions of the Reinstatement in Civil Employment Act, in directing the veteran to the proper office for information on land grants, gratuities, and, in fact, as the centre to which the veteran turns for help in almost every phase of the readjustment process.

not lead to any broadening of employment opportunities for ex-service personnel or any other particular groups in the labour force.

In *India* the employment exchanges now being set up have as one of their chief purposes the provision of vocational advice and placement facilities for the men and women released from the forces. A special resettlement advice service has been created in connection with the plans for resettlement and re-employment.

In *New Zealand* the Rehabilitation Department is the central agency for veterans' re-establishment, but the National Service Department, which included the wartime employment office network, was assigned chief responsibility for the placement in industry of ex-service personnel fit for and seeking industrial work. The Department carried out this task through a special Servicemen's Division. So far as is known, the new National Employment Service has taken over from the National Service Department the responsibility for veterans' placement work, and the work continues to be organised as an integral part of the general machinery of the service.

In the *Union of South Africa* the chief responsibility for veterans' placement rests with the Directorate of Demobilisation of the Ministry of Welfare and Demobilisation, which works in close touch with the Department of Labour, responsible for the employment offices. In most cases, the employment offices make the actual placements, but the Public Service Commission handles most of the arrangements for the employment of veterans in public service, in which a fixed preference for ex-volunteers applies.

The *United States* Employment Service was specifically assigned the responsibility of maintaining "a veterans' service to be devoted to securing employment for veterans" by the Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933. From that time on, there has been within the Employment Service a specialised division called the Veterans' Employment Service, operating through a veterans' employment representative in each State administrative office and a local veterans' representative in each of the 1,500 local offices of the Service. The Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 also specifies the intent of Congress that "there shall be an effective job counselling and employment placement service for veterans, and that to this end, policies shall be promulgated and administered so as to provide for them the maximum of job opportunity in the field of gainful employment". So far as the employment service is concerned, the practice is to give each veteran specialised assistance through the veterans' representatives of the Veterans' Employment Service. Moreover, one or more employees (preferably veterans) are designated in each local employment office as veterans' employment representatives. These representatives register and interview veterans for employment and, where

necessary, help them to define their occupational plans. In finding suitable employment for them, they use the regular employment office channels to the full, rather than duplicate the placement work done in these offices. The general policy is to co-ordinate service to veterans closely with service to all other applicants in the local office, and to make service to veterans an individualised, but not a separate, part of the work.

The need for supplementing the employment service administration with the specialised work for veterans will diminish as the men and women concerned find their way back into permanent employment. Should they lose their jobs after a period of years, there is no real reason, from an employment standpoint, why their needs should be regarded as specialised and why they should be met on any different footing from other applicants for employment, except in so far as a fixed and continuing policy of preference to veterans in referral to public or private employment may be followed. Thus, it may be expected that the specialised arrangements for veterans within the employment service will be of a more temporary character than other forms of specialisation of employment service work mentioned here.

The development of these specialised arrangements for particular categories of persons in the labour force is a significant feature of employment service machinery and has involved many interesting adaptations of the methods of work of the service. It has therefore seemed appropriate to consult the Governments in regard to the desirability of including provision for such arrangements in the international regulations on the employment service. The following point is therefore included in the Questionnaire:

12. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for specialised arrangements by the employment service on behalf of particular categories of workers in the employment market?*

(b) *If so, do you consider that such arrangements should be made in respect of:*

- (i) *juveniles?*
- (ii) *technical, professional and executive workers or salaried employees?*
- (iii) *disabled persons?*
- (iv) *ex-service personnel?*

SPECIALISATION BY SEX

Before the war, it was common practice to deal separately with men and women applicants for work within the employment service. In some cases, this meant that the local offices had separate entrances for men and women, separate waiting rooms, and separate staff; in other cases, there were separate offices for men and women; and in still other cases, particularly in the smaller offices, sex specialisation merely meant that male members of the staff dealt with male applicants for work and female members dealt with women.

The practice of specialised arrangements based on sex rather than on the occupational background, qualifications and tastes of the applicants originated in part as a police rule. It was also an outcome of long-standing traditions and customs as to the status of women in the national employment market. It tended to coincide, in some measure, with the structure of employment opportunity for women. There was a fairly rigid demarcation between "men's work" and "women's work" in most countries and thus, in practice, the sex division of employment service work contained a certain amount of occupational logic. The sorting of men and women applicants for work into two groups was also an outgrowth of the feeling that there was a definite preference among women for specialised or separate employment office facilities, and that this had to be taken into account if the employment service was to be fully used by women in search of employment in all occupations. Specialisation of service by sex thus developed and persisted in the great majority of countries with an employment service up to the outbreak of war in 1939. It might be noted, however, that in the *U.S.S.R.* women were allocated to employment in the same way as men, with no separate arrangements for their placement; and in the *United States*, while separate employment sections or services for women had grown up in the early days of the employment service, these had tended to be replaced in many local offices by mixed sections or services, handling both men and women, and the further development of separate facilities for women was increasingly discouraged.

The war appears to have had contradictory effects on the specialisation of employment service work by sex. On the one hand, as part of national campaigns to persuade more women to enter employment, and industrial jobs in particular, the employment services of many of the major belligerent countries (including *Australia*, *Canada*, *New Zealand* and the *United Kingdom*) took steps to

build up or expand and strengthen the branches, divisions or sections of the local offices responsible for handling women workers, so that the services could deal more promptly and adequately with the larger numbers and many different kinds of women passing through them. It was also important in these countries to persuade women who had never worked before and who would not ordinarily be interested in working outside their homes to accept employment, and this was considered as an additional reason for building up specialised services for allocating these women to work of importance within their capacity and suited, so far as possible, to their other responsibilities. Finally, the introduction of compulsory registration and national service for women made the existence of specialised machinery more necessary than in peacetime. On the other hand, the war economy had the effect of breaking down a great many of the remaining distinctions between "men's work" and "women's work" and thus destroyed more of the pre-war argument for sex specialisation.

At present, national practice is varied. In most of the countries for which information is available, some form of specialisation in women's placement still exists. In *Belgium, Chile, France, Great Britain, Luxembourg, Netherlands* and *Switzerland* the general plan is to set up separate sections or branches of the employment offices to deal with women applicants for work. In *Great Britain*, for example, separate departments deal with men and women within each employment exchange; the men's departments are staffed by men and the women's departments by women, although there may be both men and women in central service sections (*e.g.*, those dealing with finance and the management of the exchange are the same for both departments). The co-ordination of work within each exchange is very close, however, so that the sections of the women's department have access to a full occupational range of vacancies and are not isolated from the main stream of employment exchange activities. In *Canada*, wherever the volume of women job seekers warrants the establishment of a special division for women, this is done; in the smaller offices, for practical reasons, specialisation takes the form of assigning women selection officers to handle the interviewing and placement of female applicants. In *Sweden* procedure is mixed. There are now separate employment service sections for the placing of women in many occupations, but the placement of teachers, artists, musicians, and clerical workers (except in *Stockholm*) is handled in offices dealing with both sexes on an equal basis. The wisdom of continuing a policy of having separate

sections for men and women is under examination by the authorities at the present time. In the *United States*, as noted above, the official national policy of the Employment Service is to discourage separate placement sections or branches for men and women on the grounds that they are administratively inefficient and not conducive to the sound placement of women according to their full capacities and skills. However, where a woman applicant for work expresses a preference to be interviewed by a female member of the employment office staff, her preference is respected. In *France*, in principle men and women are placed in employment by the same employment office, but the office is generally organised to provide separate entrance, reception and interview arrangements for the two groups of applicants.

In most countries, including the *United States*, there appears to be a recognition that some kind of special action through the employment service is desirable and indeed necessary to meet the special problems of women in the employment market, no matter what the origin of these problems. But there is an increasing divergence of view as to whether this action should take the form of separate employment office arrangements for men and women, given the greatly increased range of occupations in which men and women share the jobs and work under the same conditions of employment. Some thought is being given, therefore, to other lines of action, for example, to the setting up of special advisory committees or sub-committees on women's placement, to more adequate representation of qualified women throughout the employment service itself, to increasing study by the employment service of the general and specific obstacles to placing women in jobs on the basis of their individual merit and skill, and to various forms of educational campaigns aimed at widening women's employment opportunities over the whole range of work for which they have shown they are suitable.

In 1944, the International Labour Conference, recognising the importance of the principles and machinery used during the transition period and thereafter to place women in suitable employment, incorporated the following principle in the Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944:

The redistribution of women workers in each national economy should be carried out on the principle of complete equality of opportunity for men and women in respect of admission to employment on the basis of their individual

merit, skill and experience, and steps should be taken to encourage the establishment of wage rates on the basis of job content, without regard to sex.¹

In July 1946, a group of experts chosen from the members of the I.L.O. Committee on Women's Work met in technical conference in Montreal to discuss problems of the post-war employment of women, including arrangements for their placement through the employment service. Their Report, which has been referred by the Governing Body to its Employment Committee for consideration, includes the following paragraphs in regard to the organisation of the placement of women:

Placement of Women

It was with great satisfaction that the experts learned that the question of the organisation of employment service had been placed on the agenda of the 1947 Session of the Conference. Without attempting a comprehensive study of this important problem, they concentrated on those aspects concerning placement of women.

One general principle was considered of such importance that it is reiterated at the outset, namely, that employment services should be expected to place in a vacant job the person best qualified to fill the job, account being taken not only of the interests of the employer, but of the person seeking employment. For this purpose the individual aptitudes and the skills acquired by a woman worker should be taken into consideration in the same way as in the case of a male worker.

Organisation of the employment offices. As regards methods of achieving this objective, the opinions of the experts differed and were coloured by the administrative customs of their countries. Several of them set forth the advantages of placing men and women through a single service organised on an occupational basis: they considered that men and women looking for a job are thus more sure of access to the employment opportunities offered in the branch of occupation to which they belong. They pointed out, however, that placement through a single service does not necessarily imply that women enter the employment office by the same door as men, nor that they wait in the same room. On the other hand, certain experts expressed the opinion that separate sections for the placement of men and of women give good results, provided that the two sections of a given service are established according to the same principles, operate under a single direction, along the same lines and in the closest collaboration. Moreover, for placement in technical and other higher posts, it was agreed that a single service was generally desirable. It was also agreed that in all cases decent and attractive premises must be provided if women are to be expected to use them. No one supported the idea of an employment service organised wholly on the basis of sex.

Advisory bodies. The desirability of advisory bodies in which women's interests are adequately represented was unanimously recognised in order to ensure a placement policy having due regard to women's interests. At each level — national, regional and local — where advisory bodies are found

¹ General Principle IX.

useful, women's interests should be represented. It was pointed out that, at the local level, the organisation of special committees or subcommittees for dealing with the employment problems of women have proved their value in many cases, especially in periods like that which we have just passed through, when the employment market was subject to drastic changes and when it was necessary to study carefully all these factors in order to place women successfully.

Vocational guidance. The necessity of organising vocational guidance services, free to workers and competent to give expert advice, within the framework of placement services or in close collaboration with them, was recognised as being of use to all workers, but in the case of adult services they are particularly useful for women, as a large number of women, because of family circumstances, enter employment late or return to it. Since they have lost contact with the school and may not have received vocational training at the normal age, it is essential to provide facilities for discovering their individual aptitudes. 107722

It was stressed that there was need for vocational guidance founded on principles broadened by war experience, for the direction of both girls and adult women towards either training facilities or placement in industry or in other fields of activity. Along with individual guidance, great use might be made of methods for providing collective information such as pamphlets, radio talks, films, etc., on careers and occupations, on training facilities open to women, on time needed for preparation, current wages, prospects of success and of promotion. In this connection it would be particularly appropriate to explore new fields of activity as to their suitability for women. A public service operating as part of or in close collaboration with the employment service should be responsible for systematic research along these lines. It was pointed out, however, that guidance pamphlets and other information must reflect good current practice in order to stimulate the legitimate ambitions of young women and make known to them the full range of opportunity. In countries which have had no experience in war production, it would be desirable to spread information concerning results obtained in other countries where this production was very extensive, in order to widen conceptions of vocational guidance as a basis for vocational training and the placement of women.

Training of placement personnel. The need of trained personnel both for guidance services and for placement services was recognised by all the experts. Many of the elements of such training should be common to the personnel engaged in the placement of men and women, either within the framework of the single services or within the framework of separate sections of a given service. Nevertheless, specialisation might be useful in view of a thorough knowledge of the jobs generally allocated to women, of certain psycho-technical aspects of the question, of the social problems connected with the family responsibilities of women workers, of special legislation for the protection of women, if such exists, etc.

The personnel should have constant access to information on the changes which may occur in their own field of activity and keep their technical knowledge up to date in order that women applicants may profit by work opportunities in the modern, changing economic and technical situation. The staff should be given opportunities to enter the workplaces of the district,

in order to be familiar with conditions under which work is carried on and to discover more easily what jobs are adaptable to women workers. Conferences between members of a given service or region and refresher training courses have proved of great value for improving the competence of the staff and helping them to overcome difficulties in their work.

Suitable employment. As regards both the placement of women and the granting of insurance benefits or assistance allowances during unemployment, the interpretation of the term "suitable employment", refusal of which entails suspension or loss of the benefits or allowances, is of primary importance. It was agreed that, for both men and women, the general standards for suitable employment, with revision in appropriate cases as to a reasonable period of time which may vary with individual circumstances, are: (1) skill qualifications comparable to those of the most recent employment, or of the highest skill used by the applicant; (2) wages comparable to those paid on the last job or to those established within the district offering the job; (3) suitability of experience; (4) convenience of location; (5) appropriateness of the applicant's physical condition to physical requirements of the job; and (6) absence of disqualifying circumstances in the job (such as trade disputes, wages below those provided by union contracts, or an unreasonable requirement of geographical shift).

It was pointed out that some of these requirements should be studied with particular care in the case of a woman worker, especially the location of the workplace when a woman worker has a family or household responsibilities. Furthermore, current interpretations of the term have often not kept pace with the current practices in the employment of women which have undergone wide changes in the last years. These interpretations reveal a thorough lack of understanding of women's capabilities and may thus be extremely harmful to their legitimate interests. Such regulations, for example, deprive an unemployed woman who refuses employment in domestic service of allowance rights, whatever may be her experience and technical qualifications in other branches of activity. While recognising that domestic service may offer a suitable opportunity of employment and, to an increasing extent, advantageous and skilled jobs, as efforts are made to raise the status of this occupation and to improve its working conditions, the experts unanimously agreed that domestic service cannot be considered suitable employment in every case. A woman claimant without skill in any occupation should not be required to accept placement in domestic service under penalty of losing her allowance unless the vacancy is clearly suitable in her case. She should rather be given the opportunity of receiving prior training in this or some other occupation.

In the light of the discussion at the above conference of experts and of the variations in current national practice as regards arrangements for the placement of women through the employment service, the Governments are consulted on the following point in the Questionnaire:

13. (a) *Do you consider that for the placing of women the general organisation of placement work on an occupational basis*

is sufficient to ensure access to employment on the basis of individual merit?

(b) If not, do you consider that the international regulations should provide for the employment service to develop specialised arrangements for the placement of women applicants for employment?

CO-ORDINATION OF GENERAL AND SPECIALISED PLACEMENT ARRANGEMENTS

The development of these various forms of specialisation of employment service work has raised a number of difficult problems of administrative co-ordination, the solution of which vitally affects the ability of the employment service to carry out its basic placement functions effectively. The co-ordination of specialised arrangements with general employment service work has been achieved in a variety of different ways.

In the first place, most countries appear to have insisted on the principle that any specialised placement work done for particular industries or occupations or groups of workers should be brought squarely within the structure of the regular employment service. In practice, this has meant subordination of specialised sections, divisions or units to the appropriate administrative authorities of the employment service. Where the specialised placement arrangements cover the country as a whole on a centralised basis, as is the case in the placement of particular groups of highly qualified technical personnel in *Great Britain*, they are controlled and organised by the national headquarters of the service. Where the arrangements are organised primarily on a regional basis, as with the placement of disabled persons in *Sweden* or of professional, technical and executive personnel in other countries, or where they operate with areas different from those established for local employment office work, as with the placement of construction workers, dock workers or forestry workers in various countries, the direct supervision of the arrangements falls to the regional administration of the employment service, with policy directed from headquarters as for regular employment service work. Where specialisation takes the form of specialised sections within the local offices, or of separate offices set up within the local office area for particular industries or occupations or for particular categories of workers, such as juveniles, the control of policy is vested in the management of the local employment service office, and from these offices on up to headquarters

through the regular employment service channels. In other words, the specialised work, to be an integrated part of the employment service, must be subordinated to the general administrative structure at the appropriate level of administration. This does not preclude the existence of special arrangements for co-ordinating the activities of each particular network of occupational or other sections or offices in such manner as to promote mobility through the whole country or region, but it does ensure that at every point these arrangements will be reviewed in the light of, and subject to final conformity with, the general employment service policy and administration. In the absence of such an over-all and clearly defined supervisory control by the regular employment service, it would be a most difficult task to ensure the maintenance of unified administration.

In addition, national practice indicates that various steps may be taken to ensure a fluid relationship between specialised sections or offices and the rest of the employment service. Vacancies which might be suitably registered in more than one section or office can be circulated to each of them, for example, and applicants for work can be classified and registered according to primary and secondary qualifications and interests, and, if suitable, allowed to register with more than one section or office if they so wish. Thus, specialised occupational sections may be required to note and pass on any special experience of an applicant in a second or secondary industry or occupation; a juvenile, though first interviewed by a special juvenile branch of the employment office, may be referred to the part of the employment office best equipped to handle his placement, such as a specialised "higher appointments" office or a specialised building trades section of the exchange; a disabled applicant for work may be given counselling assistance by a specialised unit of the employment office, but then referred to the appropriate occupational section for placement. Informal staff co-operation within each employment office is an essential element in integrating specialised arrangements with general employment service work. In addition, however, there seems to be a need for clearly defined formal arrangements, so that co-operation along these lines becomes an automatic part of each wheel of the administrative machinery.

All such arrangements, formal or informal, have a basically similar purpose. Their aim is to keep open, so far as may be administratively practicable, the doors between one part of employment service work and another, so that applicants for work and prospective employers alike have the fullest range of opportunity over the

whole employment market, and so that no one part of the machinery of placement acquires any character of exclusiveness not warranted by the specific requirements of the occupation, industry or group of workers. The application of this principle is stressed by employers and workers alike. The employer wishes to have access to a wide reservoir of potentially qualified workers. The job seeker wishes to be as free as possible to find the available employment best adapted to his tastes and qualifications. The trade unions of several countries, *e.g.*, *Great Britain* and *Sweden*, have been particularly anxious to prevent any restriction of free access by workers to the different occupational levels.

Thus, while it seems fairly clear that certain forms of specialisation of employment service work are closely enough rooted in employment market logic to have a more or less permanent and prosperous future, it is also clear that unless there are systematic and adequate arrangements for co-ordinating the specialised placement work with the regular employment service machinery, the potential benefits of specialisation may be nullified. The following point is therefore included in the Questionnaire:

14. *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for the co-ordination of any such specialised arrangements with the general work of the employment service?*

CHAPTER VI

EMPLOYMENT SERVICE FUNCTIONS

The increased emphasis on the more positive objectives of the employment service as an instrument of full employment policy has involved the acceptance of more positive specific tasks. These are instanced in the following sections under the headings, respectively, of collection of information concerning employment and unemployment, general standards for the recruitment and placement of workers, encouragement of necessary occupational mobility among workers, encouragement of necessary geographical mobility, co-operation of the employment service in unemployment insurance and assistance administration, and participation of the employment service in activities affecting the employment situation.

COLLECTION OF INFORMATION CONCERNING EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

A first specific task of every employment service, regardless of how it is organised or how highly it is developed, is the collection and analysis of information concerning the condition and trend of employment and unemployment. This factual information, assembled and made available on a national, regional and local basis, and for particular industries and occupations, is a prerequisite not only of the technical organisation of the employment market but also of the development and application of national policies of full employment and efficient distribution of manpower within the framework of a production programme aimed at higher living standards. It is thus impossible to exaggerate the importance of the informational function of the employment service at any time, and the task assumes outstanding practical significance in moving towards the social objectives of the post-war economy.

From the beginning, every national employment service has been assigned the task of collecting certain kinds of information about the employment market. In the past, however, the informational duties of the service in most countries were somewhat limited. In many cases, they were limited to a routine recording of information

on the number of unemployed workers seeking jobs with the aid of the employment service and on the number of vacancies notified to the service. This was particularly true where the employment service was in an early stage of development, as, for example, in *Australia, Canada and New Zealand*, but it was also true in countries in which the employment service was far more mature and experienced, as, for example, in *Great Britain* and a number of the countries of continental Europe. The depression of the 'thirties brought to light many of the deficiencies of the informational work of the various employment services. In many countries, as in the *United States*, for example, it was realised for the first time how few facts were available concerning the requirements of industry for workers and the supply of workers at any given moment and how difficult it was to forecast the trend of employment for even a limited period in advance. Not until the outbreak of war in 1939, however, was there any full appreciation of the extent to which such data were essential for the purposes of employment organisation. During the war, a number of countries were forced to expand and improve their employment market information. Their experience has served to emphasise the need for such information in applying employment policy in the post-war period.

To apply any full employment policy effectively, two main kinds of information are required. The first is current statistics of employment and unemployment classified so as to provide a detailed picture of present and prospective (*i.e.*, for a few months in advance) employment in the various industries and areas and among the various groups in the working population. The second is statistics projected over a longer period of time in such a way that there may be an over-all employment target corresponding to national production and consumption goals.

The duty of collecting and analysing information on current and short-term labour requirements and on the labour supply falls to the employment service, as a rule, though it may sometimes share the task with other agencies. Thus, the Employment Service Recommendation, 1944, stipulates that the duties of each national employment service should include "collecting and making available information concerning labour supply, employment opportunities, the skills required to do particular jobs, changes in skill requirements within the different industries, employment and unemployment trends, the regularisation of employment, and the causes of

unemployment, and other information of value in promoting full employment".¹

A survey of national practice in ascertaining labour requirements and labour supply indicates that a number of important problems of principle and method have still to be resolved in this field. Government estimates of the current and short-term labour requirements of employers, for example, include a wide margin of error; further, accuracy is needed to make them of greater practical value. In a number of countries, statistics on the present and prospective supply of labour tend to be unreliable. The problem is to improve the methods of collecting these data and of classifying them so that they give immediate indications useful in training and placement work and in applying other instruments of employment policy, such as the planning and timing of public investment. Many of these problems are of a highly technical statistical nature; and most of them are difficult to solve in present circumstances. These factors are far outside the scope of this Report, but attention may be drawn to a few points which seem to have a special relevance to the collection of employment market information by the employment service. These points are being stressed by various countries now engaged in revising, extending and improving their short-term employment data in the near future:

- (a) the necessity of continuous analysis of labour requirements on an industry and area basis, including action to promote greater technical knowledge of skill requirements in each branch of industry (by such means as job analysis, for example) and of any special factors affecting the employment opportunities of particular industries and areas;
- (b) the necessity of employing well-trained staff on the work of surveying employers' labour requirements, since experience shows that the accuracy of employers forecasting of their needs varies considerably with the ability and judgment of the personnel engaged in collecting figures on current and prospective labour requirements;
- (c) the desirability of encouraging employers to give advance notice of their vacancies to the employment service, as recommended in the Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944²;
- (d) the desirability of close Government and employer co-operation in analysing estimates of labour requirements and of

¹ Paragraph 2 (2) (a).

² Paragraph 13(3).

- associating trade unions and works councils with the tasks of estimating labour requirements, making job analyses, etc.;
- (e) the necessity of continuous analysis of labour supply by skills, industries and areas, as well as on a national basis, and of making this information available to the Government agencies, employers and trade unions concerned;
 - (f) the desirability of encouraging all types of unemployed and underemployed persons to register for employment with the employment service, so that the employment service may have a more comprehensive picture of the available supply of workers;
 - (g) the necessity of studying without delay the causes and incidence of any unemployment that arises and the characteristics of the unemployed population, in order to provide a detailed factual basis for diagnosing and remedying unemployment;
 - (h) the necessity for machinery for co-ordinating and utilising to best advantage the information about employment made available by periodic and special manpower surveys.

A number of countries are taking steps to expand the range of employment service work in the field of collecting and analysing information.

The *United States* Employment Service has initiated a comprehensive programme to extend the compilation of current and prospective employment information; the programme will make available detailed material grouped in series covering a general survey of the chief labour market areas of the country, area employment, area unemployment, employment opportunities by areas and industries, periodic and special surveys of employment conditions and trends (including short-term surveys of labour requirements), etc.

In the 1944 White Paper on *Employment Policy*¹ the Government of the *United Kingdom* stressed the necessity of obtaining relevant statistics for the execution of an employment policy. Among the "principal classes of statistics which must be obtained for the efficient operation of an employment policy" the White Paper lists "statistics of employment and unemployment, including quarterly or monthly statements of present and prospective employment in the main industries and areas in the country, based on returns from employers". The employment exchanges are responsible for the collection of such statistics. They compile and maintain local employment records, and the manager of each exchange prepares a comprehensive

¹ Cmd. 6527 (London, May 1944).

quarterly report on the employment situation in his area. These reports include not only statistics on current employment, but also general information on present and prospective employment in the chief industries of the area. Occupational analysis is also being undertaken by the local employment exchanges.

In *Canada* the National Employment Service, through its more than 200 local offices, collects current employment data (showing, among other things, the number of vacancies and their industrial distribution, the number of applicants in the various regions, areas and occupations, etc.), which are centralised and processed in the Research and Statistics Branch of the Dominion Department of Labour. This Branch also makes quarterly forecasts of employment for periods of three to six months in advance, and undertakes special studies of employment trends in particular industries and areas and of the labour force of the country and of particular areas. In addition, information received by the Employment Service is screened by co-ordinating committees of the senior officers most concerned with the formulation of policy of the Service, and policy directives are issued to the local offices of the Service to facilitate the most effective use of information relating to the labour market.

The *Australian* Commonwealth Employment Service is required "to provide such information services as the Minister determines". The district offices of the Employment Service forward regular returns to the Central Office, providing details of the number of persons placed, the number of persons seeking employment, the number of unfilled vacancies, the composition of unemployment and of prospective labour requirements, the probable expansion or contraction of production in industries in the area covered, and so forth. Trained officers analyse skill requirements for various occupations and industries and are at present compiling a manual of job descriptions for all occupations in the Commonwealth. An effort is also made to collect information regarding the causes of unemployment.

In *New Zealand* the Employment Service is authorised by the Employment Act, 1945, "to make surveys or forecasts of the classes of employment from time to time required or available . . . whether in industry or otherwise", to obtain and collect information on employment and unemployment trends. The Act also provides for regulations to obtain "any information or particulars that may be required for the purposes of the Act whether in relation to labour requirements, retrenchments, movements of labour, subsidies or otherwise"; and in 1946 the Employment (Information) Regulations were issued, providing for data to be collected from the district

offices indicating whether an industry is receiving its fair share of new workers or losing workers to other industries, whether wage movements in other industries are acting unfavourably against it, whether labour shortage exists in general or in specific industries, areas or occupations. The Research and Statistical Section of the National Employment Service, on the basis of the figures assembled through the local offices, provides current data on employment and unemployment, the number of vacancies filled and unfilled and the number of applicants for employment, classified by industry or occupation and by geographical district.

In *Belgium* the Provisional Unemployment Fund, which administers the employment service, collects and publishes weekly statistics on placement operations and unemployment for the whole country and also makes studies of certain aspects of the employment problem, such as causes of unequal distribution of unemployment, or the manpower situation in particular industries, or the results of measures taken to alleviate unemployment.

In *Chile* and the *Argentine Republic* the employment service authorities are empowered to undertake a wide range of studies of employment and unemployment, in addition to having the task of periodically collecting detailed information on labour requirements and labour supply.

In *Greece* the employment offices are required to provide the Ministry of National Economy with information regarding the labour market conditions in regions under their jurisdiction. Statistics of persons seeking employment and of the labour requirements of enterprises operating in their region are collected regularly.

In *China* the employment service of Chungking already undertakes enquiries into the demand for and supply of manpower with a view to their co-ordination and plans to extend and improve the collection of employment data as rapidly as possible.

In *Denmark* the employment service is required to assist other State institutions in the compilation of statistical material relating to employment and periodically collects data concerning the state and trend of the employment market.

In both *Sweden* and *Switzerland* there has been a considerable extension of the employment information work of the employment service.

In *France* the departmental manpower offices send to the Directorate-General of Labour and Manpower regular monthly statistics on the number of placements effected, of unplaced applicants, of unfilled vacancies and of unemployed persons in receipt of public

assistance. It has been found that the centralisation and analysis of these statistics take undue time and also that many details of value are lost in the process. Hence in the Orléans region an experiment is now being carried on with a view to making employment and unemployment statistics available more rapidly, specialising the work of information collection to ensure better and more uniform interpretation of results, including greater detail and variety in the data collected, and providing a useful yardstick for evaluating the operations of the various local and departmental employment offices.

The general trend of national policy and practice is certainly towards extending employment service tasks in the field of collecting and analysing actual information on current and prospective employment conditions. For example, the *British* Ministry of Labour and National Service has called attention to the "increasingly important" functions of the employment exchanges in this field; the *French* Government attaches vital importance to immediate expansion of employment service work in collecting employment market information; and the *New Zealand* Prime Minister considers that "the vital foundation" of employment service planning for full employment is wholly adequate employment information.

Because of the widely held opinion that the employment service must perform broader functions in the collection and analysis of employment statistics, and because this is a principal task assigned to the employment service of every country, the following point is included in the Questionnaire:

15. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should state that the employment service should be responsible for collecting, in co-operation where necessary with other authorities, and for making available at regular intervals, comprehensive information on the situation and trend of employment and unemployment, both in the country as a whole and in the different industries, occupations and areas?*

(b) *If so, do you consider that this information should cover any or all of the following subjects:*

- (i) *current and prospective labour requirements, including details as to the number and type of workers needed, classified on an industry and area basis?*
- (ii) *current and prospective supply of workers classified by numbers, age and sex, skills, industries and areas?*
- (iii) *number, location and characteristics (occupational and otherwise) of unemployed persons, and the duration of their unemployment?*

(c) *In addition, do you consider that the regulations should provide for the employment service, in co-operation where necessary with other authorities, to make continuous and special studies of employment opportunities and trends, both generally and in the various industries and areas, the causes and incidence of unemployment, the factors affecting employment opportunities, the regularisation of employment, the skills required to do particular jobs and their inter-relationship, changes in skill requirements within the different industries, and other questions affecting the achievement and maintenance of full employment?*

(d) *Have you any suggestions to make concerning methods of collecting any or all of the above kinds of information in order that it may be as authoritative and useful as possible?*

Preparation of Manpower Budgets

The second main kind of employment information needed for applying a full employment policy effectively is statistical data giving an over-all view of the volume and distribution of the national labour force for the ensuing year. "Manpower", Lord Beveridge has pointed out, "is a datum; it cannot be altered by State action; to take anything else as a datum and to try to fit use of manpower to it is to risk mass unemployment or mass fatigue."¹ An outstanding characteristic of current developments in employment information is the emergence of national manpower budgeting as an integral part of production and employment planning. As a rule, it falls to the employment service to assist in the preparation of such budgets and in a few countries to take the chief responsibility for their preparation.

So far, systematic manpower budgeting is undertaken in few countries. The *United States* Employment Act of 1946, for example, provides for an economic report on national production and employment.² It requires the President to transmit to Congress within 60 days of the opening of each regular session an economic report set-

¹ *Full Employment in a Free Society* (London, 1944), p. 136. A British Information Service release of 24 June 1946. ("Britain's Manpower Budget", by Gordon SCHAFER), commenting on the publication of "the most complete manpower budget yet issued in Britain" by the Ministry of Labour, states:

Instead of the pre-war system of issuing unemployment figures, this new statistical form analyses the complete manpower position and gives the Government and industry an opportunity to see at a glance the general trend of Britain's industrial development. The manpower budget is an important factor in the Government's plans for ensuring full employment. It provides a good barometer by which signs of an approaching slump become discernible and enables the Government to take early counter-measures.

² Employment Act (79th Congress, 2nd Session, Public Law 304, approved 20 Feb. 1946).

ting forth the existing level of employment, production and purchasing power; current and foreseeable trends in employment; a review of Federal economic policy of the preceding year and its effect on employment; and a programme for carrying out the stated employment policy, with recommendations for legislation. Projections of the demand for and supply of labour in the country as a whole and in particular industries, occupations and regions will be an essential part of the administration of this Act. In *Australia* the Department of Post-War Reconstruction has been working out a Commonwealth manpower budget for use in the post-war period, and for this purpose has been making extensive enquiries into the number and occupational qualifications of the persons likely to be seeking gainful employment and into such matters as the probable supply of raw materials, the probable volume of public and private investment, and basic consumption goals (food, clothing, housing and education, etc.).¹ The *New Zealand* Employment Act, 1945, provides for a Minister of Employment whose responsibilities include that of collecting and co-ordinating employment information so that it may be related, on a long-term basis, to national development plans.² The Employment (Information) Regulations of 1946 provide the legal basis for the preparation of a national manpower budget.

The *British* White Paper on *Employment Policy* specifically referred to the acceptance of an over-all manpower budget to complement the budget for total expenditure³; statistics on employment and

¹ In a 1944 lecture, the Director-General of Post-War Reconstruction cited figures showing target distributions of Australian manpower resources and emphasised the importance of relating the volume and distribution of post-war expenditure to these data (*Problems of a High Employment Economy*, Adelaide, 1944).

² The report of the National Service Department for the year ended 31 Mar. 1945 also contains information concerning policy and plans for the "scientific and complete analysis of the employment field" (see, in particular, pp. 15-16).

³ The paragraph in question reads:

This central analysis of our financial position, which will be subject to continuous review and adjustment throughout the year, will serve as a basis for determining what measures are required to maintain employment and secure a rising standard of living. It will be essential, therefore, that at every stage there should also be parallel studies of the manpower position. These will be undertaken by the Ministry of Labour and National Service who, in the light of the knowledge and experience which they have acquired during the war, will be specially well-equipped to keep the employment situation throughout the country under constant review and to direct attention to the employment aspects of national policy. The surveys prepared by the Ministry of Labour will indicate the probable supply of labour over the coming period, the prospective changes in employment in the different industries, and the effects upon employment of Government projects designed to modify the volume of investment or expenditure. The correlation of these complementary budgets—for total expenditure and for manpower—will thus play a vital part in the formulation of Government policy for the maintenance of employment.

the labour force found a place, for the first time, in the 1945 White Paper on *National Income and Expenditure*¹, a recognition not only that employment data are an indispensable counterpart of data on income and expenditure, but also that the two must be co-ordinated; and the Government has decided that a manpower budget shall be drawn up so that the existing labour shortage may be examined in the light of the national economic situation as a whole.² The information in the manpower budget will include the capital development programmes of local authorities over a three-year period; particulars about areas of depressed employment having a competent labour force and about industries that might be located in such areas; movements of discharged service men and women; and the composition of the labour force by occupation, age and industry. The *Swedish* Government has also taken a lively interest in problems of manpower budgeting, and the State Employment Market Commission, working in co-operation with other State bodies, has already made studies of long-term employment prospects in relation to national requirements as a step to facilitate planning for full employment.

In many European countries faced with the prospect of continuing labour shortage, the idea of manpower budgeting has particular practical significance. In several of these countries, such budgeting has been made an integral part, in fact a keystone, of the longer-term reconstruction plans. In *France* the central statistical service of the Ministry of Labour is responsible for drawing up a manpower budget on an annual basis. The first such budget was established at the beginning of 1946. While it could not be wholly accurate because of the difficulties of obtaining reliable information concerning certain groups (independent workers, home workers, and workers in some commercial occupations), it is considered to constitute a satisfactory basis from which continuous improvement can be made. The employment information of the employment service is used in drawing up the budget, but since it is incomplete in several important respects, it is supplemented by data drawn from the population census, figures on public employment and social security statistics. In *Czechoslovakia* the Ministry of Social Welfare, utilising its employment service, is responsible for drawing up a manpower budget for mobilising and allocating the manpower needed for carrying out the Two-Year Plan of Reconstruction. In *Hungary* the

¹ Cmd. 6623 (London, 1945).

² Speaking in the House of Commons on Feb. 1946, the Chancellor of the Exchequer said:

Each year we must have a manpower budget as well as a money budget. We must know the facts regarding not only the surpluses or deficits in finance, but also the surpluses or deficits in labour, both in the country as a whole, and in particular areas and industries.

Council of Trade Unions, which is the policy body of the trade union employment service system, is responsible for drawing up a national plan proposing the most effective employment of the country's labour force; the plan is based on the employment data compiled by the employment offices and their estimates of future trends. The budget is then submitted to the Ministry of Industry for approval and for integration in the scheme of national production.

No matter what techniques may be used for assembling, co-ordinating and utilising long-term labour supply and employment data, and for relating them to the anticipated volume and distribution of the demand for labour, the importance of the task is more widely appreciated today than ever before. One of the chief sponsors of the *United States* Employment Act, Senator Robert F. Wagner, has posed the need for such data, stating:

As I reflect back upon the past years of boom, depression, recovery and war, the most important lesson that impresses itself on my mind is the necessity of trying to look ahead . . . I, for one, am extremely conscious of the difficulties in trying to estimate future trends of employment and production . . . Yet if the Full Employment Bill, as passed by the Senate, should become law, I am sure that we could do a better job of estimating employment and production trends than ever before in the country's history . . . The issue . . . is not whether we should make forecasts or avoid forecasts. The issue is whether we should look ahead in a haphazard and unorganised manner, or whether we should try systematically to appraise current and foreseeable trends, as part of a broader programme for maintaining full employment, full production and full consumption.¹

The former Minister of Labour and National Service of *Great Britain*, Mr. Ernest Bevin, urged the use of manpower budgets in addressing the Governing Body of the International Labour Office in December 1943, in the following terms:

I believe that the essential need for the future is not a financial budget but a human one . . . Year by year the Governments should study prospective demand, taking into account failures of harvests, and anything that can be foreseen which would dislocate the world. With this an ordered economy could be planned, so that if the trade of individual countries contracted at home, it could expand abroad, or if it contracted abroad, capital development could be turned on at home and so keep the measure of consumption stable.

It is not impossible to deal with cycles of boom and depression if Governments have the facts before them in advance, just as they have had the financial facts in front of them hitherto. In other words, we must make our statistical forecasts in the form of the right use of manpower and not only of money. This may be difficult in areas with large peasant populations; but if the more highly developed countries do this, then they are bound to take into account what is happening among primary producers. In other words, information will flow from the ends of the earth, and Governments should be in possession

¹ *New York Times*, 26 Dec. 1945.

of it and be able to shape their policy accordingly to help to lift the backward and maintain stability among themselves.

In view of the growing importance of manpower budgets in Government employment policy, and of the assistance that the employment service can give in formulating such budgets, the following point is included in the Questionnaire:

16. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for each country to draw up an annual national manpower budget, showing the anticipated volume and distribution of the national labour force in relation to the anticipated volume and distribution of the demand for labour?*

(b) *If so, do you consider that the manpower budget should be drawn up by the employment service*

(i) *alone? or*

(ii) *in co-operation with other public authorities?*

Availability of Employment Information

If statistics of employment and unemployment are to be of maximum utility, they must be made available speedily and systematically to the Government departments and other organisations which need them in their policy-making and administrative work. This implies not only speed in collecting and analysing the figures, but systematic methods of transmitting them to the other Government authorities and the trade unions, employers' associations and other groups which will put them to practical use in co-operation with the employment service.

Since the employment service carries a primary responsibility for collecting and analysing most of the information available in any country in regard to the employment situation and trend, its functions in this field extend to making the data available in the form and at the time when they can be most useful. The fulfilment of this task involves every operating level of the service, from the central headquarters down to the smallest local office. While each employment service publishes and distributes employment statistics in some manner or other, the speed and efficiency with which the figures are made available to Government agencies, trade unions, employers' organisations and the general public vary from one country to another, and the arrangements made for their use by these bodies differ still more.

In several countries, including *Canada, France, New Zealand, the United Kingdom* and the *United States*, the need for rapid processing and publication of current employment market data is being stressed. It is considered that much of the practical usefulness

of these data is lost if they refer to a historical, rather than a current or prospective, employment situation, while the lack of wholly up-to-date information means that an essential basis for applying employment policy realistically is lacking.

The importance of publishing the data in a readily usable form has likewise been emphasised since the end of the war in a number of countries, and particularly by organisations of employers and workers, as, for example, in *Great Britain*, *Sweden* and the *United States*. This implies adaptation of national material to regional and local needs, and considerable variety in the published material so that it is appropriate to its consumers. The headquarters of the United States Employment Service, in a circular of instructions to the field offices, noted the particular need for local publication of local employment market data, stating:

The regular release of local labour market information is a responsibility of the very offices which collect it — the W.M.C. [War Manpower Commission] - U.S.E.S. [United States Employment Service] offices... With the conclusion of the war and the consequent relaxation of security regulations there are many evidences of growing interest in the release of labour market information at the local level . . . Because of the different interests of local groups concerned with labour market information, it is obvious that the approach to and details of the information will vary. Employers and employer groups will desire and need considerably more detailed information than will the general public.

In *Canada* the employment service has urged upon its regional and local offices the regular dissemination to all interested local authorities and organisations of material on the employment situation in the region or locality in question, and has encouraged these offices to explore the community means of making the data available, such as the radio, press, technical journals, meetings and conferences of the area.

A number of interesting methods of developing systematic arrangements for making available and using employment market information appear to be arising in the adjustment to post-war conditions. Many of them seem to have their roots in the closer collaboration established between the employment service and employers' and workers' organisations and the greater participation of the service in the work of Government agencies concerned with economic and social planning. For example, the *British Ministry of Labour* memorandum on *Local Employment Committees*¹ includes the following paragraphs:

¹ L.E.C. 5/9 (1946).

8. The regional boards for industry are empowered to appoint district committees for such districts as appear to them necessary, to which they may delegate any matters falling within the boards' own functions. When a district committee is considering a matter related to a district covered by a local employment committee and wishes to have additional information about the employment situation, or the views of industry in the locality, it will generally ask the Ministry of Labour and National Service to obtain the information needed or the views of the local employment committee, as the case may be. Appropriate arrangements will be made for representation at the meeting of the district committee at which the matter is discussed.

In future, local employment committees will have a new and most important task in connection with the Government's policy of maintaining a high and stable level of employment. The execution of this policy must be based on adequate, accurate and timely information as to the employment position and prospects, and the Ministry of Labour and National Service is responsible for assembling full information as to the demands for and availability of labour, actual and prospective. In this connection, exchange managers are required to submit regular appreciations of the employment position and prospects in their areas. Local employment committees will be consulted in connection with these reports and their help will be particularly valuable in interpreting the statistics of employment and unemployment in the various local industries, so as to provide an accurate picture of the situation and the way in which it is likely to develop. From their experience and contacts with industry and commerce in their areas, members of local employment committees may be able to indicate reasons for changes in the volume of employment or influences making for future changes, and they may be able to suggest local measures which can help to overcome difficulties.

In *France* the employment office statistics on the state of the employment market are examined each month by the representative departmental manpower committees set up in each department. The committees then issue reports which not only furnish factual information on employment and unemployment but draw conclusions from the figures and suggest measures for meeting the problems presented, whether for avoiding unemployment or increasing the supply of labour. In *Bulgaria*, *Czechoslovakia* and *Hungary* the works councils, trade unions and management representatives are brought into direct collaboration with the employment service in making systematic use of the factual information on employment. In *Canada* and the *United States* it is hoped to retain the strengthened employment service advisory committees established during the war period and to have their help in canalising the release, publicity and practical use of employment market data.

Statistics of employment and unemployment have repercussions extending far beyond national frontiers. It might therefore be desirable to make more systematic provision for the official transmission of such data to the International Labour Office.

In view of the importance of the speedy publication and systematic distribution to interested organisations of statistics on employment and unemployment, and in view of the steps already taken in this direction by the employment service of many countries, the following question is included in the Questionnaire:

17. Should provision be made for all this information to be made available systematically, and as soon as possible after its collection,

- (i) to the Government agencies, employers' organisations and trade unions concerned?*
- (ii) to the International Labour Office?*

GENERAL RECRUITMENT AND PLACEMENT OF WORKERS

Since every employment service is responsible for finding suitable employment for workers seeking jobs and suitable workers for employers requiring labour, many of the specific duties of each service are connected with carrying out this task. The methods of recruiting and placing workers in employment and filling employers' requests for workers therefore constitute the basic equipment of the service in its employment organisation activities. The manifold procedures which make up the total placement process vary considerably from one country to another and undergo continuous change and improvement. The following paragraphs mention a few of those commonly accepted today as essentials in this part of employment service work. For the purposes of this report, the emphasis is less on the description of the procedures than on the desirability of developing and maintaining minimum national standards, incorporating the best elements of modern national practice, to govern the general recruitment and placement of workers.

Standards of Reception, Registration and Interview for Employment

The first group of functions in the field of general recruitment policy covers those activities which are concerned with obtaining and recording information about the persons seeking employment.

The initial point of contact of the job seeker with the employment office is generally the reception service of the local office. Through the receptionist, the applicant for work is routed to the section of the office or the staff member seemingly most suitable to register and interview him for employment. The reception service is consequently a key control point, particularly in the larger offices,

and its organisation and staffing demand careful thought. A receptionist must have enough technical knowledge to route the applicant to the proper place, so as to avoid loss of time and confusion in the employment office and serious inconvenience to the worker. He must also possess personal qualities capable of eliciting the co-operation of the applicant and giving him the impression that he can count on friendly as well as efficient service from the employment office as a whole. In most countries, it is admitted that the reception service of the local offices leaves a good deal to be desired, and at the present time several of them, including *Canada* and the *United States*, are making efforts to improve these arrangements. It has come to be recognised that even in this relatively small segment of employment service work, there is a need for better defined and uniform standards, to be worked out and applied throughout the service.

The next stage of the process is registration and interview for employment. This stage may consist of one or two steps. The applicant for work may be asked to fill out the registration form but not be personally interviewed for employment at the time, or the work history may be recorded by an interviewer at the same time. The latter practice seems to be accepted as preferable, since it saves time, in the long run, for both the applicant and the employment office staff. The procedure of self-registration, unaccompanied by interview, is not considered wholly satisfactory, and while it was used during the war in a number of countries, it is being abandoned now that peacetime conditions are revising the standards of work upwards. Needless to add, the registration form itself is a matter of considerable importance. It must be simple, yet it must include questions capable of drawing out relevant details of the applicant's qualifications. Each office of the employment service is generally required to use standard registration forms supplied by the central headquarters, a procedure designed to establish uniform methods of analysing, reporting and filing the applications for employment as well as to make the operation of clearance arrangements possible.

The interview for employment is now recognised as one of the most vital parts of the whole placement process. It is the means by which the employment office obtains the particulars needed for occupational classification and referral. The standard registration form has to be simple, but through the interview the interviewer may find out and record all the relevant details of the applicant's work history, noting secondary as well as primary occupations which might be suitable and other data needed for accurate assessment of his employment capacities (proved and potential) and desires. Almost without exception, the countries in which the employment

service has existed for any length of time have come to the conclusion that one of the prime needs of the service in the post-war period is higher standards of interviewing job seekers.

Before the war, the methods of obtaining an accurate idea of an applicant's abilities were fairly elementary and tended to be somewhat mechanical and unsatisfactory even in countries with the most highly developed services, such as *Germany* and *Great Britain*. During the depression, an incentive for improvement was lacking since the most careful assessment of occupational qualities and desires was of little avail in the absence of concrete placement prospects. During the war, there was, on the whole, still further retrogression in the major belligerent countries because the large numbers of employment registrants and the relatively narrow range of high priority jobs to be filled led to a streamlining of techniques of interviewing, including a great abbreviation of work histories and the elimination of all details considered to be non-essential from the standpoint of immediate placement in work of national importance. There were a few important exceptions, however. In *Great Britain*, for example, methods of interviewing were improved under the pressure of war conditions. The system of personal, private interviewing of job seekers was first introduced in the employment exchanges in mobilising women for war employment; the staff engaged on interviewing work were selected with as much care as the situation allowed, and interviewers were instructed to use ingenuity in their work, attempting to find clues to the ways by which the men and women passing through the exchanges could best help in the war effort, and also to exercise tact and skill so that compulsion in placement work could be held to a minimum. In a few other countries as well, broader experience in registering and interviewing job seekers was acquired as a result of the more representative cross-section of the working population using the employment offices in war conditions.

In the year which has followed the end of the war, particular efforts to improve the interviewing side of employment service work have been made in the countries of the British Commonwealth of Nations, the United States and several countries of continental Europe. In the *United States* the Assistant Executive Director of the War Manpower Commission called attention, even before the war ended, to the fact that interviewing had been "streamlined to a point which, while it meets the war needs, will not meet the post-war needs"; a Field Instruction issued to regional, State, area and local employment offices in January 1945 stated that employment service responsibilities for the readjustment of veterans and displaced war workers required the development and maintenance of higher

standards for interviewing; and the national policy set for the employment service after the end of hostilities includes this goal as one of the main points of adaptation of the work of the service to new conditions. In *Canada* each local employment office has been asked to re-examine its methods of interviewing job applicants so as to make the procedure more effective and more acceptable in peacetime, taking the vocational qualities of work seekers into full account as essential to proper placement work. In *Czechoslovakia* where extensive powers of employment control are vested in the district labour offices, the interview is of key importance in carrying out manpower redistribution and mobilisation, since it is the Government's intention to apply the programme so far as possible in a wholly voluntary way, resorting to compulsion only when all other means have failed. In *France* the employment service is planning a campaign to promote more rational interviewing of job applicants in every local office, as a primary step in enabling the service to cope more effectively with the existing manpower shortage, and special staff training courses have been held on the purposes and methods of interviewing. In *Great Britain* the wartime use of personal, private interviews has been termed by the Minister of Labour a great improvement in employment service work; it is planned to develop it still further as a basis for the post-war work of the local exchanges. In *Australia* and *New Zealand*, the importance of the interview is fully appreciated and special steps are being taken in both countries to train the employment service staff in this work. Trade unions in *Australia*, *Canada*, *Great Britain*, *Sweden* and the *United States* have insisted, on one or more occasions, that the employment offices must eliminate hurried and formalistic methods of registering and interviewing job seekers and substitute for them a warmer and more human approach, with greater emphasis on the needs and desires of the individual seeking work. Employers have also expressed the view that higher standards of interviewing should be developed in order to enable the selection officers to make a more discriminating choice of applicants for referral to vacancies.

Reconsideration of interviewing standards is important to every employment service, including those in the early stages of development. Steady refinements of method, aimed at individualising interviewing work (*e.g.*, substituting private for counter or otherwise public¹ interviews) and at increasing its accuracy in assessing the

¹ So far as this particular refinement of method is concerned, most countries are moving towards greater privacy in employment interviewing, especially as the interview tends to include a larger amount of expert guidance. One of the technical officers of the *United States* Employment Service recently expressed doubts as to the value of privacy in many interviews, stating: "Not many
(Footnote continued overleaf)"

actual and potential occupational qualities of job seekers, are certainly not too much to expect in the performance of the task of finding really suitable work for applicants. They are indispensable if the employment service is to carry out the broader responsibilities assigned to it in the post-war economy. It is for this reason that many countries are formulating more specific standards, worked out on a national basis, to govern the activities of the service in this field.

As an integral part of the same process, it is significant that a notable characteristic of current employment service work in several countries is the emphasis placed on vocational guidance in connection with efforts to place job seekers in the most suitable work. The provision of guidance through the employment service is a relatively new development so far as adult applicants for work are concerned, though in certain European countries the giving of vocational advice was included among the specific tasks assigned to the employment service. The war of 1939-1945 had mixed effects. On the one hand, it heightened the consciousness of the need for systematic individual counselling within the employment service, largely because of the wider use of the employment offices by non-industrial groups of the working population and by adults entering the labour force for the first time, but partly because it was realised that without guidance as a preliminary to placement many occupational misfits were resulting which were not in the best interests of maximum output in the war effort. Moreover, the development by the armed forces of methods of personnel selection to guide servicemen into the right units, and the right jobs within these units, gave new stimulus to the whole idea of vocational guidance for adults, as well as providing a variety of useful experience of aptitude and psychological testing for the purpose of estimating the qualifications for different kinds of work. On the other hand, the rate of flow of applicants through the employment offices of countries actively engaged in the war made it impossible for the employment service to devote the time and energy needed to develop this new and still largely experimental function as a systematic

years ago it was generally believed that interviewers should have private offices because the nature of their work was confidential. Even today the necessity for privacy is frequently overemphasised. Private offices for those who do not really need them is a space-wasting practice, is expensive, interferes with the flow of work, detracts from the general appearance, makes supervision more difficult, and tends to lower the general effectiveness of individuals occupying them." (*Employment Service News*, Sept. 1946, p. 5.) This comment, however, appears to be based largely on technical convenience in office lay-out rather than on what is most helpful and useful from the applicant's standpoint and what procedure contributes the most to accurate analysis of occupational abilities in relation to job opportunities.

local office task. Little could be done even where intentions were of the best.

The transition to peace provided the opportunity for extending guidance work within the employment service, because it was obvious that vocational advice would be a primary need of returning ex-service personnel (including prisoners of war) and deportees of all kinds and of large numbers of displaced war workers as well. Thus a good many countries have taken initial steps to organise vocational guidance machinery as a part of their effort to improve the standards of employment service work in finding suitable work for job seekers and in selecting the most suitable applicants to fill the available vacancies.

During 1945, the *United States* Employment Service introduced an extensive employment counselling programme, which is gradually being put into effect in every local office. The aim is to assist the worker to discover, analyse and evaluate his potential abilities, to help him to formulate a vocational plan by relating his known and determinable abilities and interests to occupational requirements and to the demand for workers in such occupations, and to assist him in putting the plan into effect.¹ In the larger offices, the vocational counselling is done in a separate unit of the employment office, and in the smaller offices by specially trained members of the staff. It is realised that employment counselling is work for experts, and that initial and continuous training of vocational gui-

¹ Field Instruction No. 946 of 2 Aug. 1946, defines the process of employment counselling as follows:

Employment counselling is the process whereby (1) the present and potential qualifications of an applicant who has not made a satisfactory vocational choice are reviewed, evaluated, and related to the current and prospective occupational requirements and conditions so that the applicant may make an appropriate vocational choice and plan, and so that the Employment Service is provided with a realistic basis for referral, or (2) special assistance is given to an applicant who has made a vocational choice in solving problems relating to obtaining or holding a job. After recognising that a need exists for assistance and guidance in making an appropriate vocational plan, employment counselling consists of the following steps: (1) determining with the applicant the occupation in which he is most likely to find suitable employment, based upon an evaluation of his present and potential abilities and information on job requirements and employment opportunities, or assisting the applicant to discover, analyse, and remedy the factors which have prevented him from finding work or holding a job in his chosen field; (2) developing a plan to be followed, such as short or long-range training and/or work experience which is designed to lead the applicant to his vocational goal; (3) providing any specialised assistance needed by the applicant to put into action the plan developed in accordance with step 2; (4) follow-up, as necessary, after the applicant has been placed, to determine adequacy of the placement or to assure resolution of his vocational problem. A counselling interview is a discussion between an applicant and a staff member of the Employment Service which encompasses one or more of the steps outlined under "Employment Counselling".

dance specialists on the employment service staff is indispensable. Much experimenting with methods and tools of guidance is under way.¹ Between June 1945 and the end of January 1946 (the first months of the national programme), employment service job counsellors conducted 846,860 counselling interviews. According to the chief of the headquarters Employment Counseling Unit of the Employment Service, the first year of the programme showed clearly that "given a counsellor with demonstrated aptitude for this type of work, plus training, plus tools to assist in analysing the applicant and in giving him information, plus imagination, plus the time to use his skill", the result is real assistance to the job seeker in reaching his vocational decision.² The Federal Director of the United States Employment Service considers that "the counselling function is more important today than it has ever been".³

In *Great Britain* resettlement advice offices have been set up in every town with an employment exchange, as an extension of the existing services rendered by the exchanges; these offices (of which there are now about 370) provide general and vocational advice to persons released from the forces or from war industry, but they may also be used by other job seekers. They are operated under the control of the local employment exchange managers and are staffed by specially trained officers. In addition, resettlement advice and information is made available at all employment offices and branch offices, which work in co-operation with the parent resettlement advice offices.

In *Canada* vocational guidance services for war veterans are provided as a part of the local rehabilitation organisation of the Department of Veterans Affairs.⁴ The employment service is planning the introduction of specialised guidance work as a part of the normal activities of its larger offices; this has been widely urged, as for instance, in the brief of the Dominion Government to the

¹ A "Check List for Job Preferences" has been developed to help in determining an applicant's vocational interests; the aptitude test battery for counselling purposes is being used for testing samples of workers prior to release for general use; the exchange of information on local office case work is being organised; a kit of materials for the use of counsellors has been made up; and a great many occupational briefs and booklets have been issued, both by the Federal headquarters and the regions and States.

² *Employment Service Review*, Apr. 1946, p. 4.

³ U. S. Congress, Senate *Hearings*, *op. cit.*, p. 24.

⁴ A counselling service has been set up in each district office of the Department of Veterans Affairs. It provides occupational information and administers intelligence and aptitude tests where necessary to enable veterans to choose suitable occupations for training or employment. Some 250 trained counsellors and over 300 interviewers have been appointed for this purpose. They give advice on personal and social problems as well as matters of vocational guidance.

Dominion-Provincial Conference held early in 1946. Meanwhile, occupational guidance is included in employment interviewing to some extent.

The Government of *India* has set up a Resettlement Advice Service for the benefit of demobilised service personnel.

Australia, New Zealand and South Africa have made systematic arrangements for guidance facilities for ex-service personnel in connection with their demobilisation and resettlement arrangements.

In most of these countries, it is definitely planned to make the present arrangements a permanent part of the employment service machinery. The Commonwealth Employment Service in *Australia*, for example, is required "to afford occupational advice, vocational guidance and other services to facilitate the engagement in employment and continued employment of persons in the manner best suited to their experience, abilities and qualifications". It is considered that one of the primary functions of the Employment Service is to promote the more effective development of vocational guidance facilities as rapidly as possible. At the time of writing (September 1946), the central headquarters and each State office of the Service include a subsidiary section responsible for vocational guidance activities, to which trained vocational guidance officers have been assigned. The direction of vocational guidance in all States and research into the use of vocational and aptitude tests, job descriptions and analogies, etc., are in the hands of the Vocational Guidance Section of the Central office of the Service. A manual of job descriptions, now in preparation, is expected to facilitate the expansion of vocational guidance activities. As soon as possible, vocational guidance is to be made available through the district offices of the Service. The *New Zealand* Employment Service is also charged with providing vocational guidance to job seekers, and the Minister for Employment considers that such facilities should be made available to all persons seeking occupational assistance, whether employed or unemployed, and that they should be developed in the light of the best modern practices and with the aid of specially trained staff within the employment service. The *South African* Registration for Employment Act requires the employment officers to "make due provision for affording guidance to work seekers in regard to the choice of employment, by means of the collection and communication of information and the furnishing of advice". In the *United States*, it remains the policy of the Employment Service to provide employment counselling service to any applicant of employable age who requires and wishes such assistance in becoming vocationally adjusted. A number of European countries, including *Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, the Netherlands* and

Sweden, are also planning the organisation of systematic vocational guidance for adult work seekers, integrated with their reorganised employment services. In *France*, for example, the manpower services of the Ministry of Labour and Social Security have co-operated closely with the vocational selection centres of the Ministry, which provide fairly elaborate psycho-technical tests, and in future, propose to co-ordinate this type of special vocational guidance work even more closely with the daily employment office operations. The psycho-technical examinations are carried out by selection officers trained by the Ministry of Labour at the National Institute for the Training of Specialised Personnel (*Institut national de formation des cadres professionnels*) and assigned to the various manpower offices. It is considered that many adult job seekers may benefit from expert vocational advice, and that the provision of this advice is an important task of the manpower services in an economy characterised by labour shortage.

The growing emphasis on the counselling function in employment service work will certainly facilitate not only a more skilful occupational choice but also the actual placement task of helping the worker to find a job in line with that choice. In a full employment economy, it is important that each person should be employed in the job that he can do best, and that gives him satisfaction in his work; the employment service, through the provision of vocational guidance, is able to contribute to this broader placement goal.¹

Thus, national employment service policy and practice in regard to assisting workers to find the most suitable work available is being adapted to the post-war situation in two main ways: through efforts to secure from the applicant more complete and painstaking work histories and more accurate knowledge of his technical qualifications and occupational desires; and through the provision of vocational guidance facilities within the employment office to help him to decide upon a vocational career in line with his capabilities and tastes and the general employment situation. These efforts are in harmony with the broader responsibilities of the employment service in the economy, since failure to explore fully an applicant's occupational qualifications and potentialities will not only limit his employment opportunities but will inevitably result in occupational

¹ The Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944, urged that each Government "should, to the maximum extent possible, provide public vocational guidance facilities, available to persons seeking work, with a view to assisting them to find the most suitable employment" (General Principle V).

misfits, leading to a loss of trained manpower in the nation's production, thereby working against the objectives of full production and employment with rising living standards.

Standards of Employer Relations Work in Filling Vacancies

The second group of functions includes those activities of the employment service which are related to establishing, maintaining, and promoting contacts with employers and obtaining from them particulars of their job vacancies.

These tasks are frequently assigned to special units or branches of the local offices, or to special staff within the offices. The latter are responsible, in the first place, for receiving employers' requests for additional workers and for finding out from the employers exactly what qualifications are required to fill the vacancies in question. To do this effectively, they need considerable first-hand and technical knowledge of the industries and activities with which they are dealing and systematic and direct contacts with the employers themselves. Equally important, within each national employment service there must be uniform procedures for classifying occupations and job requirements so that each vacancy may be described accurately, and for obtaining details concerning wages and working conditions.¹

In certain specific ways and in certain countries, the war forced improvements in employment service procedures for finding out employers' needs for workers. For example, where employers were required by war regulations to use the employment service to engage labour, in an employment market where they had "to take what they could get", they sometimes approached the office in a truculent mood. The employment offices had to meet this attitude by providing as efficient service to employers as possible and by devoting greater care to developing good relations with employers in their areas of operation. Since in many countries it was necessary because of labour priorities and over-all shortages to find out more precisely what the labour requirements of the employer were, more highly qualified staff were put on the work of order-taking and of analysing employers' needs on a more systematic basis. Employers were asked to co-operate by giving as long advance notice of their needs as they could and by analysing their requirements carefully in terms of the number and kinds of workers needed and the possibility

¹ See the first section of this chapter, on employment service functions related to the assembly of employment market information; also, Appendix V, "Note on the Occupational Research Programme of the United States Employment Service".

of breaking down jobs into simpler operations so that inexperienced workers could be used. In a number of countries, the employment offices were called upon to help with job analyses or did the work for the employers. The employment office staff responsible for finding out and recording employers' requirements for workers made a point of organising their employer contacts carefully, rather than leaving them to chance or to a loose schedule of field visits.

In other ways, the war caused less precise order-taking and much inferior service to employers. Non-war industries in belligerent countries, for example, received scanty response to their requests for workers. The greatly increased volume of work in the employment offices of these countries led to a deterioration in the method of obtaining accurate details of the vacancies and classifying them in painstaking manner in the employment office files. An employment office called upon to staff war factories engaging many thousands of workers in a few days could not expend its efforts in refining the processes of order-taking and selection, for example, but had to devote its energies to shortening these processes as much as possible.

Now, after the war, the employment service in many countries, including *Belgium, Canada, Czechoslovakia, France, Great Britain, Hungary*, and the *United States*, is revising its methods of obtaining data from employers with a view to making a better technical analysis of their requirements and also of providing more individual and less perfunctory service to each employer, large or small. Through greater technical efficiency and better personal relations with employers, the employment offices hope to develop the kind of contacts with employers "that will make the front office of a plant more than half ready to employ a worker who is recommended by the employment service, because other workers the service has recommended have made good". In most liberated countries, there is likewise emphasis on greater precision in taking employer orders. In many of them, as in *France*, this is primarily because the manpower shortage requires the employment service to ensure that there is no unnecessary wastage of manpower within the various undertakings.

There is a tendency towards greater standardisation, on a national basis, of the details obtained and more uniform classification of the data on a national basis. The *United States* Employment Service, through national research into industries, occupations and job requirements, has done a great deal in this direction. The Director of the Service called attention to the importance of this programme in the November 1945 hearings on proposed employment service legislation in the following terms:

Prior to the war, we developed in the Employment Service a programme involving occupational research — the analysis of job requirements. The purpose of the programme was to help in the placement work of the Employment Service. During the war we made that occupational information available to industry. It helped employers in getting better utilisation of their work force. We have found a continuing interest in that information, and we have continued to make that service available to employers. The demand for it is greatest among small employers. Large employers have facilities of their own, in a great many cases, for developing the same type of technical information on personnel matters. But we found that it is a service very much desired by the small employers.¹

Australia, Canada, Great Britain, India, New Zealand and several other countries are now making similar efforts to obtain the material needed to bring about greater uniformity in this field. In *Belgium* and *France* the employment service authorities are taking a particular interest in overcoming the problems involved in the technical selection of workers through such means as the analysis and classification of occupations and jobs, on a uniform national basis, in terms of the technical skill and personal and other qualifications required to fill them. In *Czechoslovakia* the employment service expects to call upon the works councils for assistance in making occupational and job analyses. Many other European countries and many outside Europe (such as *Australia, Canada, India* and *New Zealand*) attach the greatest importance to employment service action in this field and consider the existence of technical criteria for filling specific jobs and the analysis of their relation to one another as prerequisites for progress in the general guidance and placement activities of the service and in encouraging rational occupational mobility. Such measures will certainly facilitate the task of placement, since they make possible a far greater understanding of employers' labour requirements and thus a far greater accuracy in their analysis.

Clearance Arrangements on a National Basis

A third group of functions in the general placement work of the employment service is concerned with the organisation of clearance, that is, with the arrangements made for clearing the employer's need of a worker and the worker's need of a job from

¹ U.S. Congress, Senate: *Hearings, op. cit.*, p. 25. It is interesting to note that this programme has been endorsed by the labour movement. President Green of the A. F. of L. told the House Committee, in its hearings, that the occupational dictionary describing jobs and rates of pay in various parts of the country for different jobs had been of great benefit to employers and workers alike; and C.I.O. spokesmen have also endorsed the occupational analysis work of the Employment Service as a useful tool in collective bargaining.

one employment office area to another in cases where these needs cannot be met within the local area in which they have arisen. Through such arrangements, an employer is able to draw on a much wider labour supply and a worker's opportunities for finding suitable employment are greatly expanded. Thus a systematic organisation of the clearance of job vacancies and applications for work wherever suitable placements cannot be made within the area of any one employment office is a basic need if an employment service is to be able to operate on a national scale. Procedures for this purpose make a reality of the phrase "national employment market". By widening the range of opportunity, they broaden the concept of placing workers in the most suitable work and finding the most suitable workers for employers, and thus promote effective performance of this basic task of the employment service.¹

Before the war of 1939-1945, clearance arrangements, though highly developed in a few countries (particularly in *Germany*, *Great Britain* and *Sweden*), left a good deal to be desired in most countries with an employment service. Not only was the machinery admittedly cumbersome and slow, but little real effort was made to use it fully. As a result, the potentialities of clearance in the placement process tended to be ignored or underestimated. The war led to distinct improvements in this situation in a number of countries, and particularly in *Canada* and the *United States*.

In the latter country, for example, the Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933 required the Employment Service to maintain a system of clearing labour between the several States. Before 1940, this was done through co-operative arrangements by the various State employment services, but no truly national system of clearance existed. In late 1940, the Service put into effect a national clearance scheme to speed up the recruitment of defence workers and to minimise unnecessary and unplanned movements of labour from one area to another. The national machinery made use of the State and regional employment service offices as widening zones of clearance, with the national headquarters of the Service as the focal point for inter-regional clearance arrangements. In *Canada* one of the most important functions performed by the Employment Service during the war was the organisation of an efficient national system of inter-office and inter-regional clearance of labour; employer orders or job applications which could not be dealt with locally were referred to the region and then to the national circuit. In both of these countries, concrete steps have already been taken to adapt clearance

¹ Clearance arrangements are closely related to the geographical mobility of labour, discussed later in this chapter (pp. 165 *et seq.*)

arrangements to post-war employment conditions and to effect further improvements in the machinery along such lines as cutting the time involved in channelling vacancies and applications over the national network and promoting the use of clearance facilities by employers and workers and local employment offices. The present policy of the *United States* Employment Service, is to promote inter-area placements as necessary, to recruit qualified workers from all local services before resorting to inter-area recruitment, to place in inter-area clearance only employer orders on which at least minimum compensation is specified, to establish immediate areas of recruitment within States based on similarities of industrial structure transport facilities or other factors, and to establish with adjoining States immediate areas of recruitment which cut across boundaries of two or more States.¹

Australia and *New Zealand* are organising national clearance arrangements as a part of their employment service machinery. Thus in *Australia* a clearing house system will operate in each of the State capital cities, linking each district employment office in the State with

¹ The post-war employment service problem and objective in inter-area placement was defined as follows by a headquarters employment specialist:

The current needs of employers reflected by the present openings in inter-regional recruitment, however, play but a minor part in the full utilisation of Employment Service facilities for matching men and jobs when workers are in one place and jobs in another. Workers now surplus in communities no longer producing for war are looking to the U.S.E.S. for jobs; the U.S.E.S., on the other hand, seeks to gear its post-war inter-area placement programme into a uniform system that will minimise un-directed migration and which will contribute effectively to rapid absorption of a displaced labour force. Such a programme will permit the establishment not only of applicant transfer facilities, but new facilities to direct applicants to jobs outside the United States, and a continuing promotional effort to acquaint employers and workers with the inter-area placement facilities available to them through their local U.S.E.S. offices. The emphasis on this latter phase is important for two reasons: (1) it will attract to the Service employers who want workers unavailable locally; and (2) applicants for whom no local employment exists.

While the development of an effective post-war labour transfer programme is a partial fulfilment of the responsibility of the U.S.E.S. this must be supported by a sound training programme at all administrative levels to assure uniform application of the importance of its objectives.

During the coming months, the occupational readjustment problems of workers will be many and difficult to solve. The post-war plans of the U.S.E.S. are designed to meet this challenge and its inter-area placement programme will expedite the solution for workers surplus in one community who may be needed in another. (*Employment Service Review*, Jan. 1946, p. 8.)

The revised Code of Federal Regulations, issued in September 1946, provides for co-operation of each State agency with the U.S.E.S. in the interstate recruitment and transfer of workers, and for the maintenance by each State agency of an adequate system for the recruitment and transfer of workers between areas within the State (Sub-title B: "Labor Regulations", Chapter I, Part 21, section 21, 2 c).

a central State clearing house in order to facilitate the more satisfactory matching of workers with available employment opportunities; clearing arrangements among the various States will be organised through the Commonwealth headquarters of the Employment Service, and there will be specially centralised arrangements for professional, scientific and other workers in short supply. *India's* employment exchange network includes facilities for clearance on a centralised basis; the regional exchanges have been instructed to undertake labour-clearing work in respect of the subregional exchanges and the temporary resettlement and employment offices of the provinces, and the central headquarters has been assigned the function of organising interprovincial clearance. On the European continent, a number of countries have already taken action to develop or rebuild employment service clearance machinery in order to facilitate the execution of reconstruction programmes. In *France*, for example, one of the first steps of the Manpower Directorate was the organisation of clearance machinery to keep the central headquarters fully informed of the employment situation in each part of the country and to make possible the redistribution of labour as required for reconstruction and national development. The *Scandinavian* countries, in addition to strengthening national clearance arrangements, have developed co-operative clearance machinery, described elsewhere in this Report.¹ The organisation of clearance systems on a national basis continues to be accepted as a primary task of new employment services, such as those being established in the *Argentine Republic*, *Turkey* and *Venezuela*.

These examples are evidence of the growing recognition that in a post-war economy aimed at the maintenance of full employment there is a special need for a system of labour clearance which makes it as easy as possible for workers to have knowledge of and access to job opportunities in other parts of a country and for employers to have knowledge of and access to the supply of available workers over the entire nation. This type of clearance can only be set up and operated on a national basis. Its existence as a part of the machinery of the employment service has a vital bearing on the effective work of the service in promoting necessary geographic mobility in the labour force, a task recognised to be essential to the maintenance of a high and stable level of national employment and to the redistribution of manpower in conditions of general or specific labour shortage.

¹ See Chapter VIII and Appendix II.

Desirability of Uniform National Standards for Recruitment and Placement Activities

In the performance of all these various functions, it is clear that the national interest is involved. Thus most countries, recognising that effective employment service work requires the existence of minimum standards of operation, have developed, on a national basis, a number of uniform procedures for dealing with the various questions noted in the preceding paragraphs. The Questionnaire therefore includes the following point:

18. *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide that the employment service should have the primary responsibility for assisting workers to find suitable employment and for assisting employers to find suitable workers, and that for this purpose the employment service in each country should develop uniform procedures, formulated on a national basis:*

- (i) for registering job seekers, recording details of their occupational qualifications, experience and desires, providing them with vocational guidance as may be required, interviewing them for employment, and referring them to available job vacancies?*
- (ii) for obtaining from employers particulars of their job vacancies and precise information concerning the nature of these vacancies and of the specifications to be met by the workers?*
- (iii) for clearing job vacancies and job applicants from the area of one employment office to another so that a national system of clearance may be maintained?*

Referral Policy: Standards of Selection

In selecting the workers to be referred to particular vacancies, the fourth major part of the total placement process, the employment service has to make decisions which are likely to involve somewhat delicate questions of social policy. The general aim of any employment service is to provide equal employment opportunities to all job seekers on the basis of their qualifications for the job, selecting those best suited for the vacancies in question, and in so doing to exercise strict objectivity and impartiality. The referral policy must be worked out with care, therefore, and applied with considerable uniformity over the country as a whole. Since the policy is of direct concern to employers and workers and their organisations, the question arises as to how these groups should be associated with its formulation and application.

In most countries, the referral policies of the national employment services have been embodied in the legislation or regulations concerning the employment service or in more or less standardised practice. While the rules governing referral differ in detail, the general principle of impartial selection according to the job qualifications set by the employer is widely accepted in both law and practice. For years, for example, official *British* policy for the employment exchanges has been to maintain absolute impartiality in selecting the applicants sent in reply to notification of vacancies, sending those best qualified industrially for the vacancy, in compliance with the employer's requirements, and allowing those qualifications alone to weigh. The *United States* Employment Service policy is to select and refer, according to the specific requirements of employers, the applicants most suitably qualified for the openings listed with the Employment Service. The policy of the National Employment Service of *Canada* is to refer applicants to vacancies on the basis of their suitability for the job, as judged in terms of the employer's specifications, and to take no other factor into primary consideration. In *Hungary* it is specified that the employment offices should refer registered workers to vacant jobs on the basis of their ability to perform the work in question. In *France* the manpower services are required to place job seekers in accordance with their vocational qualifications and experience.

Such a policy implies an impartiality, subject to the employer's requirements, which is sometimes specified in more detail in national laws and regulations. In some countries, the employment service is instructed to refrain from discriminatory referral practices on specific grounds. In the *Netherlands*, for example, the employment offices are required to place their services impartially at the disposal of all employers and all persons seeking work; the pre-war policy, which has been restored, is that preference shall not be given to any person availing himself of the help of the employment offices on account of his religious, political or social convictions, or because he does or does not belong to a particular association, unless he has expressed certain preferences in this respect. In *Great Britain*, absolute impartiality must be respected between all sections of the working population and no distinction may be drawn between members of trade unions and non-members unless an employer has expressly stipulated that he requires a union member or non-member. The *United States* Employment Service is required: (a) to extend no preference in referral to any applicant or group of applicants except as legal regulations may necessitate or as the employer's specifications and the applicant's abilities and characteristics require; (b) to refrain from

discrimination in referral on the ground of affiliation or non-affiliation with a labour organisation (except that persons affiliated with a labour organisation may be referred on an order so specifying, pursuant to the employer's agreement or understanding, written or otherwise, with representatives of employees affiliated with such labour organisation); and (c) to refrain from discrimination in referral on account of race, creed, colour, national origin, or, except as required by law, citizenship. In *Canada* the employment offices must provide facilities for all and there must be no discrimination as between persons of different skills or classes of occupations or as between insured and uninsured persons. Specifically, no applicant may be discriminated in favour of or against by reason of (a) racial origin, religious belief or political affiliation or (b) whether or not he or she was engaged previously in insured employment or is a claimant for unemployment benefit. In *Hungary* the employment offices must serve applicants and refer them to vacancies on the basis of suitability for the job, whether or not they belong to any given trade union or professional association.

In some countries, the general policy of non-discrimination in referral policy is limited by instructions authorising the employment service to extend a preference in employment to certain groups. Employment preference to war veterans has been granted, for example, in many types of employment in the *Union of South Africa*, in *India* and, in accordance with the provisions of the Re-establishment and Employment Act, in *Australia*. The *United States* Employment Service is required to give priority in selection and refusal to qualified veterans and to give disabled veterans preference over other veterans. The *Canadian* National Employment Service follows a general policy of preferential referral of war veterans who have served overseas (or those in receipt of pensions) to available vacancies which the veterans are capable of filling. No non-veteran is referred to a post for which a capable veteran is available until the employer has indicated that the veteran is not suitable. In *France* demobilised prisoners, deportees and assimilated groups are granted employment preference by the manpower services. In several other countries, the employment offices have been authorised and encouraged to grant informal referral preference to veterans. In some countries, such a policy is not looked upon with favour. In *Great Britain*, for example, the Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Labour stated, in reply to a question in the House of Commons, that preference to ex-service personnel in employment exchange policy was not under consideration and that the decision not to grant such a preference had been taken on grounds of principle and was not related to the employment situa-

tion existing from time to time.¹ However, there are special arrangements for marking introduction cards for ex-service men, and in the selection of applicants the exchanges are instructed to see that ex-service personnel are not placed at a disadvantage through lack of recent experience in civilian work.

In *New Zealand* public policy is to grant employment preference to trade unionists, and this may affect employment service referral policy. Moreover, certain countries follow a policy of employment preference for disabled persons, either generally or for specific groups of the disabled (such as war veterans in receipt of disability pensions) or for certain categories of employment; where this is so, the referral policy of the employment service is necessarily affected. In a few countries, an explicit preference is granted to persons with experience in the industry or occupation in question; for instance, the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act of the *United States* requires that the railroad employment service should give preference to persons with railroad experience in filling railroad job openings. In one or two cases, particularly in some *Latin American* countries, priority must be given to the sons of persons already employed in particular industries or undertakings. In certain European countries, including *France*, war widows or mothers of deceased personnel may be granted preference in certain circumstances. A preference to heads of large families is also granted in some countries. In *Venezuela*, for example, the employment service is required to offer preference to fathers of large families; and in *France* and *Hungary* there is also a referral preference for fathers of large families. In *Canada* weight is given, other things being equal, to family responsibilities in choosing among applicants for referral. In the *Argentine Republic* preference must be given to totally unemployed persons. In *Denmark* the service is required by preference to allocate posts to members of recognised unemployment funds in cases where there are two or more equally qualified applicants for employment. In *Greece* at least half the persons placed in employment by the employment service must be unemployed persons in receipt of benefit from the Unemployment Fund. During the pre-war depression, preference was sometimes proposed for older workers or for younger workers or for men as against women, or for single women as against married women, or for other special groups in the labour force.

On the whole, however, the principle of non-discriminatory referral is limited less by such provisions as the above than by discriminatory hiring practices of employers and, in a few cases,

¹ *Parliamentary Debates, House of Commons*, 7 May 1946, col. 752.

by restrictive employment practices of trade unions. If an employer includes discriminatory specifications in his request for workers, it is difficult, if not impossible, for the employment service to disregard his preferences. Nevertheless, where a fixed and specific non-discriminatory referral policy has been worked out and laid down by law or regulation, it is easier for the employment service to counteract the discriminatory practices of employers. Moreover, in many cases and particularly where there is labour shortage, the employment service is in a strong position to exercise advisory and educational pressure among employers in favour of non-discriminatory job orders. Whether it should engage in such activities, and if so to what extent and by what methods, or whether such campaigns should be organised through other channels, is a somewhat controversial question. However, in many countries it is considered that, formally or informally, directly or indirectly, the employment service can, by the very nature of its functions, constitute a good influence towards equalising referral opportunities by consistently maintaining a policy of endeavouring to refer the most suitable workers to the available vacancies, and of advising employers of instances in which their specifications appear to run counter to this principle and thus against their own best interests. It seems to be more and more fully appreciated that employment practices which discriminate against applicants for work on grounds unrelated to their working capacity are not in harmony with the pursuit of full production and full employment, and that the employment service, in its selection work, has a number of distinct responsibilities for promoting fairminded employment practices, even though it may not have, and should not have, any direct means of enforcing them.

A further series of questions arising out of the referral activities of the employment service are those connected with the referral of workers to vacancies with substandard wages or conditions of employment, as defined by law or regulation, or by prevailing practice, including collective agreements. For example, ought it to be the policy of the service to refuse to accept orders for workers from undertakings in which wages and conditions of employment are below those set by law or collective agreement or prevailing in the locality for jobs of a similar or comparable type? Or should the service merely follow the policy of informing job applicants of the fact that the wages and conditions attaching to the job are substandard, leaving it to the discretion of the applicant to apply or not to apply for the post in question? Or should the employment service confine itself to informing the applicant of the particulars

of wages and conditions given by the employer without comment of any kind concerning their relationship to legal or prevailing employment standards? If the employment service is authorised or instructed to provide any indication of whether the conditions of employment in the vacancies are up to standard, then each of its local offices must be fully informed of all laws and regulations governing working conditions and must also be authorised or instructed to verify, where necessary, the particulars of vacancies supplied to it by the employers. It may be argued that there is a difference between employment service referral to legally sub-standard employment and referral to employment which is sub-standard in terms of collective agreements lacking the force of law or of prevailing community practice. But the trade unions consider that if the employment service allows itself to become an agency for undermining agreed union or community standards, then it can hardly claim to be operating in an impartial and fair-minded manner.

In the *United States* the Employment Service policy is to refrain from referring any person to a position where the conditions of employment or nature of the services are contrary to Federal, State or local law and to refrain from recruiting workers for employment which is clearly below the standard accepted in the community for the class of work involved. In *Canada* the National Employment Service has instructed its local offices that legal requirements on working conditions must be met. The local offices must point out deviations from these standards and if, but only if, the employer refuses to make the necessary corrections is the office entitled to refuse to undertake to fill his vacancies. The mere fact that an applicant is willing to accept substandard employment is not considered to warrant the office in referring him to such a vacancy. In *Great Britain*, whenever the terms of a vacancy appear to contravene an Act of Parliament, the case is reported to the manager, who reports the situation to the regional office for guidance and meanwhile points out to the employer the apparent contravention, explaining that pending instructions he cannot deal with the vacancy. Before any applicant is sent to a vacant job, the local office is required to ensure that the worker is acquainted with all known details of the vacancy; but under statutory regulations it is provided that "the officer... notifying applications for employment and vacancies to employers and applicants respectively shall undertake no responsibility with regard to wages or other conditions, beyond supplying the employer or applicant, as the case may be, with any information in his possession as to the rates of

wages desired or offered". Where any condition of employment in a notification of a vacancy, although not illegal, is such that it is undesirable to submit applicants for the vacancy, the manager, at his discretion, may suggest to the employer the removal of the objectionable condition, and thence, where necessary, refer the case to the regional office for instructions as to whether to pursue the matter further. Pre-war policy in the *Netherlands* was that the employment offices were required by law to inform job applicants of conditions of employment customary in the locality for the occupation in question if the proposed conditions of employment differed therefrom; moreover, they could not give their services for placing workers bound by a collective agreement with employers bound by the agreement if the placement would lead to the conclusion of a contract laying down conditions less favourable than those specified in the agreement. In the *Argentine Republic* the joint advisory committee set up to assist the National Employment Service includes among its functions the determination (by an absolute majority) of the minimum wages and salaries below which the Service shall refrain from accepting vacancies to offer to wage earners or salaried employees; each employment office affiliated to the Service is required to supply applicants with exact particulars of the nature and conditions of the work in jobs to which they are referred.

Another set of problems confronting the employment service in its referral work is concerned with the attitude of the service in industrial disputes. Should the service refrain from referring workers to undertakings affected by industrial disputes or from assisting workers directly implicated in a strike or lockout? Or should the service confine itself to informing applicants of the existence of industrial disputes, leaving them to decide on the basis of this knowledge whether or not to apply for the vacancies? In most countries, it is considered that the employment service should maintain a so-called neutral attitude in industrial disputes, not so much because such neutrality is considered good in itself as, primarily, because it is not the function of the service to judge the merits of the dispute or to settle it.

Nevertheless, there seems to be considerable difference of opinion as to what constitutes neutrality in this field. In the past, the most prevalent policy was that the employment service should be required to give notice of the existence of industrial disputes before referring applicants to vacancies in undertakings affected by such disputes. Thus in *Norway*, the Act of 12 June 1906 stipu-

lated that the employment offices were to continue their operations during a trade dispute and were also to post up in the office concerned a notice of the dispute and, in so far as either party had supplied information on the subject, a short summary of the data, stating when the dispute began, its nature and the branches of work, establishments and workers affected. In *Switzerland* the same policy was adopted at a very early date. The *British* policy has also been to allow the employment exchanges to accept notices of vacancies and to inform suitable applicants of the existence of a trade dispute before submission. The local office is required to give the applicant the fullest information available in regard to the trade dispute, stating the source of the information but taking no responsibility for its accuracy. In the *United States* the Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933 requires the Director of the Employment Service to provide for the giving of notice of strikes or lockouts to applicants before their referral to employment; specifically, the policy of the Service is to make no referral which will aid directly or indirectly in filling a job vacant because the former occupant is on strike or being locked out or the filling of which is an issue in a labour dispute, but with respect to other vacancies, a worker may be referred to a place of employment affected by a labour dispute provided he is given written notice of such dispute prior to or at the time of his referral.¹ The Employment Service of *Canada* likewise follows the practice of informing applicants of industrial disputes before offering them work in the establishments affected; all referral forms to such vacancies must be clearly marked so as to indicate the existence of a dispute and the local offices are expected to exercise every precaution against referring applicants unwittingly to vacancies affected by a dispute. It is considered a matter of right for a worker to refuse to accept jobs vacant because of a dispute.

On the other hand, a somewhat different practice is followed in some countries. *Denmark's* public employment offices were not authorised to refer workers to places affected by strikes or lockouts until the latter had either ceased or been declared unlawful. In the *Netherlands*, the offices were instructed not to give their services for the purpose of placing job applicants in an industry, undertaking or branch affected by a strike or lockout. In addition, while in some countries, as in *Great Britain*, the employment service has been authorised to register workers unemployed because of an industrial dispute and to submit them for other employment (in-

¹ Cf. *Code of Federal Regulations, op. cit.*, section 23. 1(i).

forming the prospective employer, however, that they were unemployed as the result of an existing trade dispute), in other countries, for example, the *Netherlands*, the employment offices were instructed not to give their services during a dispute to persons directly implicated in the strike or lockout.

At present, there appears to be a trend towards a policy of making no referrals to jobs vacant because of a strike or lockout and of referring striking or locked-out workers to other jobs at their request. This is current practice in the *United States* Employment Service and in the reorganised services in many European countries, including *France*. It is favoured by the *All-India* Trade Union Congress and by the organised labour movement in most countries. In connection with the adoption of this policy, it is pointed out that if the obligation is merely to notify applicants that an industrial dispute exists, considerable difficulty is likely to arise, since it is often hard and sometimes impossible for the employment service to be fully aware of all existing disputes and to verify their existence. Workers claim they were not given proper notice of the existence of a dispute and the trade unions claim that the Government is acting in the objectionable role of strikebreaker. In the judgment of the *United States* Social Security Commissioner, who saw many of these practical problems arise in the United States, "it is much better for the Government to stand clear of a situation like that rather than to get embroiled by referring folks to jobs that are affected by an industrial dispute. This does not mean the employer cannot fill the job. It means that the public employment office will not get mixed up in it."¹ Though this policy has not met with disfavour from Governments or employers' organisations, some of them (as in *India*) prefer the British practice, noted above, which has been incorporated in certain comparatively new legislation, for example, that of *Egypt* and of the *Argentine Republic*.

These are the prevalent national standards laid down to govern employment service referral policy. In addition, most countries have other standards of their own, worked out and adapted to the needs of the national employment market. In the *United States*, for example, proposed legislation to replace the Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933 would provide that persons shall not be referred to a vacancy if the position is one which does not utilise the person's highest skill, until and unless every reasonable effort has been made to place him in a position which does utilise his highest skill. This standard (which has been the policy of the Employment Service,

¹ U. S. Congress, Senate: *Hearings, op. cit.*, p. 60.

according to the *U.S. Employment Service Manual*), is one recognised to be good employment service practice in several countries, including *Great Britain* and *Sweden*, and is followed by their employment offices so far as possible though seldom written down and formalised. The trade unions attach special importance to policies protecting the workers from being referred to work which does not utilise their skills. Thus, in the *United States*, a C.I.O. Executive Council resolution in August 1945 called upon "the U.S.E.S. . . . to refuse to refer men to jobs at lower wages than they have previously enjoyed or to jobs which will not utilise the employees' skills in full". In countries with acute manpower shortage, such as *Czechoslovakia*, *France* and *Great Britain*, the employment service considers that failure to make full use of the workers' highest skills in referring them to vacancies is failure to make full use of the country's labour resources and will work against the efforts being made to reconstruct and develop industry and improve living standards. There might be advantages in considering certain national rules of this kind from the standpoint of more general applicability.

So far as the order of referral to vacancies is concerned, this has assumed less importance as the conditions of referral have received greater attention and have been defined with greater precision. The simple rule is that, as between candidates equally well qualified for particular vacancies, referrals shall be made strictly in accordance with the chronological order of registration of application. This was the common commitment of employment services in the early days of their development, and it is one which finds its way into recent legislation as well. The *Argentine Decree* of 21 July 1943, for example, stipulates that "as far as possible employees shall be sent to employers in the exact order of their registration within each special trade or category"; the *Egyptian Decree* of December 1945 states simply that referrals shall be made in accordance with the chronological order of registration; and the revised *Hungarian* rules for employment service operation base referral on the chronological order of registration, so long as the persons are able to fill the vacancy satisfactorily. Clearly, however, the policy of referring workers to jobs according to the order of their registration can seldom be strictly followed in practice, for reasons which become obvious in examining individual cases. Other factors related to working capacity are bound to enter into the selection, and often to override considerations based on length of registration as unemployed and in search of work. But the chrono-

logical order of registration can be given due weight where other factors are equal. The practice of "spot placements" or "counter referrals" (*i.e.*, referring candidates who chance to be on the spot in the employment office to vacancies without reference to the applicant files of the office), which was tolerated in certain countries (*e.g.*, *Canada* and the *United States*) under war conditions, is a good example of a negation of the principle based on seniority of registration, and has often led to unjust as well as careless selection. Since the war this practice has been largely abandoned on the ground that it has no place in good employment practice. Both *Canada* and the *United States* now follow the policy that, where candidates are equally competent, weight shall be given, in selecting one or more of them for referral, to length of registration.¹

The preceding considerations raise a number of the questions connected with the referral of workers to available vacancies. Clearly, the maintenance of scrupulous objectivity is no simple task when so many subjective factors are still involved in the estimation of technical skill, other qualifications and job requirements. But it is equally clear that there is widespread agreement on the need for indicating certain conditions under which workers should not be referred to vacancies. In general, such conditions merely embody standards which are already accepted and applied in national law or administrative policy. Their minimum aim is to ensure that the employment service is not used to undercut standards of labour and social policy. Their more positive aim is to utilise the referral activities of the employment service in support of these standards and their wider application, without, however, imposing on the service any regulatory controls or judicial functions concerning their enforcement.

The questions involved in determining the general selection standards of the employment service are obviously of national scope. Such standards need, therefore, to be worked out and applied on a national basis. Moreover, the questions raised are of immediate practical importance to employers and workers and their organisations. It has thus been found necessary in most countries to define the national standards of referral in close consultation with representatives of these groups.

¹ In *Canada* and certain other countries, spot placements may be resorted to in emergencies, *e.g.*, where the placement is to fill an urgent vacancy in a depleted occupation, where the employer refuses to wait but demands the needed worker or workers immediately, or where the placement is in casual employment. *Hungary* also specifies that the chronological order of registration may be disregarded in filling urgent vacancies on reconstruction work or for other reasons of national importance.

In the light of the foregoing remarks, the Governments are asked to reply to the following questions:

19. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for the employment service to develop rules to govern the referral of workers to available employment?*

(b) *If so, do you consider that these rules should be formulated on a national basis and in co-operation with the representatives of employers' and workers' organisations?*

(c) *Do you consider that such rules should relate, inter alia, to any or all of the following factors:*

- (i) the existence of a labour dispute?*
- (ii) the existence of substandard wages or conditions of employment, as defined by law or regulation, or by prevailing practice, including collective agreements?*
- (iii) the existence of employment practices which discriminate against applicants for employment on grounds unrelated to their working capacity?*

(d) *Do you suggest any other rules which should be included to govern the referral policy of the employment service?*

ENCOURAGEMENT OF OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY AMONG WORKERS

In any national employment market, a considerable amount of occupational mobility of labour is continuously necessary to adjust the supply of workers to present and prospective employment opportunities in the various occupations. The need for such mobility has long been recognised, and current problems in most countries are connected with developing the means of promoting the occupational mobility considered necessary and desirable and the functions of the employment service in this respect.

Experience has shown that while much of the needed mobility of labour results automatically in response to changes in the employment situation, the movement of workers from one occupation to another often falls short of the volume required by changing production and employment conditions. In the depression, the lack of sufficient occupational mobility was recognised as one of the primary causes of long-term unemployment, yet the possibilities of encouraging occupational change were limited by the general lack of job opportunities. With the war, large-scale shifts of occupation were essential in many countries, and it was necessary to re-examine ways and means of encouraging such shifts. The post-war period has

brought the need to appraise these wartime methods from the standpoint of their enduring utility in peacetime and the opportunity to develop more adequate methods of encouraging occupational mobility both in economies seeking to provide full production and employment and in those faced with an over-all manpower shortage. It was for these reasons that the principle of encouraging necessary occupational mobility was emphasised in the decisions on employment organisation taken by the International Labour Conference in 1944. The Employment Service Recommendation, 1944, states that the employment service should be responsible, among other things, for developing methods of facilitating the transference, where necessary, of workers from one occupation to another, while the Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944, states that every possible step should be taken to facilitate the occupational mobility necessary to adjust the supply of workers to present and prospective labour requirements.

The promotion of the occupational mobility of labour has frequently been mentioned among the specific functions of the employment services, even from the earliest days of their development. An active policy in this field has been particularly emphasised as a task of newly organised or reconstituted employment services, as, for example, those newly established in *Australia* and *New Zealand* and those reorganised in *Belgium*, *Czechoslovakia* and *France*. The measures taken by the employment service to encourage occupational mobility often take the form of action to remove certain of the obstacles which stand in the way of a free flow of workers into and among the various occupations. The most common of these obstacles seem to be lack of the necessary skills to fill the available jobs, lack of adequate and reliable information concerning job opportunities and working conditions in other occupations, social and psychological resistance to a change of occupation, and unnecessary or illogical restrictions on entry into the various occupations. In addition, some countries have found it necessary to bring the definition and interpretation of the phrase "suitable employment", refusal of which involves disqualification for unemployment benefit or allowance, into harmony with the changing needs for occupational mobility growing out of variations in the employment situation nationally and locally. In all these fields, the employment service has important responsibilities.

The provision of adequate and reliable information about job opportunities and conditions in other occupations is an important means by which the employment service can encourage necessary

occupational mobility and at the same time discourage haphazard shifts from one occupation to another. Comprehensive data on labour requirements and occupational trends are essential to determine how much and what kind of occupational mobility is needed at any given moment. Workers who become unemployed need factual information about their chances of re-employment in their own or a closely related occupation. If these chances are very slim, they need to know what occupations and industries are expanding and in a position to absorb workers, and most of them wish for data telling them what training and qualifications are required and enabling them to compare wages and working conditions in available jobs in these occupations and industries with those in their former jobs. The employment service is responsible for providing this type of information in most countries and its responsibility for so doing has been explicitly included among the functions of the service in the recent legislation in *Australia* and *New Zealand*. In *France* the manpower services are responsible for providing information aimed in particular at stimulating interest in acquiring skill through re-training. In several countries, the employment offices are giving special attention to developing this side of their work so that the information available will be more complete and more useful in encouraging suitable changes of occupation. This has involved, for example, studies of the relationship between different fields of work from the standpoint of occupational mobility (as in *Canada*, *Great Britain*, *New Zealand*, *Sweden* and the *United States*) and more detailed analysis of the causes of immobility in particular areas or among particular groups in the labour force (as in *France*, *Great Britain* and the *United States*). A necessary preliminary to such activities is a considerable amount of national standardisation of occupational nomenclature; this task is now being undertaken by the employment service authorities in several countries, including *India* and *New Zealand*.

Such factual information provides an indispensable basis for decisions on the need for and logical direction of occupational mobility, but it is merely a useful tool of policy. It does not ensure that the shifts so indicated will actually take place. In the first place, workers cannot move from one occupation to another unless they have the necessary qualifications for entering a new occupation where jobs are available. Even where these qualifications exist or are acquired, through vocational training or retraining, a subject outside the scope of this Report, other measures are needed, as a rule, to encourage occupational readjustment.

In almost all countries it has been found that large numbers of workers dread a change of occupation. Surveys undertaken in the pre-war depression in *Belgium, France, Great Britain, Switzerland* and the *United States* showed that resistance to changing one's occupation was particularly deeply rooted among skilled and experienced workers, and that, in the absence of special measures to promote their entry into other industries and occupations, these workers were apt to be among the long unemployed and their technical ability to be lost to the economy. A similar resistance to occupational change has also been noted among many classes of unskilled or semi-skilled workers who tend to develop a strong attachment to the type of work with which they have acquired some familiarity. A further cause of resistance to a change of occupation has been the general feeling of insecurity among workers who have been accustomed to work and seek employment in an economy characterised by the continuance of considerable unemployment.

The employment service has often been able to take a useful initiative in overcoming the resistance of individual workers to a change of occupation. Among the methods at its disposal are, for example, developing its vocational guidance facilities so that each office includes trained vocational counsellors able to provide friendly and individual advice to job seekers no longer able to count on finding suitable work in their own occupational fields; seeking to overcome ill-founded prejudices which unemployed workers may have against other types of work than their own; encouraging the provision of courses of training and retraining suitable for adult workers; paying adequate remuneration during periods of training undertaken on the advice of the employment service and making other financial assistance available as necessary; calling attention to the effect on labour transference of differentials in wages and working conditions among the different industries and occupations; co-operating in measures aimed at improving the conditions and raising the prestige of the less attractive industries and occupations in which jobs are available; assisting in defining the conditions in which workers in receipt of unemployment benefit or allowance should be required to accept available employment outside their own trade or occupation; and, in general, being on the alert to take or to suggest steps to promote the volume and kind of occupational mobility necessary in the employment conditions of each employment office area. In *Belgium, France, Great Britain, Sweden, Switzerland* and the *United States*, among other countries, stress has recently been laid on the need for the employment service itself to take a

more direct initiative in overcoming social, economic and psychological resistance to occupational transfers. It is considered that such action has a permanent part in general employment service work and can make an important contribution to the maintenance of full employment.

A number of barriers to occupational change lie in restrictions placed on entry into the various occupations and industries by employers or trade unions or by custom and tradition. In some cases, as in that of apprenticeship restrictions in certain trades, or employers' resistance to hiring women in certain industries and jobs, these restrictions have become outmoded by technological or other developments affecting skill requirements and bear little relationship to current employment market needs. Frequently, the employment service, through its regular placement work, can exert considerable influence, in co-operation with the employers and trade unions concerned, in modifying these restrictions in the light of changed employment conditions, seeking to abolish those which are no longer necessary or logical and which merely tend to prevent the re-employment of unemployed workers. Since most of these restrictive practices have their origin in a lack of job opportunities, the primary method of overcoming them lies in action to maintain full employment, a task which goes far beyond the limits of competence of the employment service alone. Among the secondary methods which fall to the employment service are (a) the encouragement of employers and trade unions, singly or jointly, to bring their hiring practices, training programmes or membership policies up to date, taking full account of wartime experience; (b) strict adherence by the employment service to non-discriminatory employment policies¹; and (c) planned publicity and campaigns of education and persuasion, based on facts rather than sentiment or tradition, and undertaken by the employment service in co-operation with employers' and workers' representatives, aimed at developing more rational employment policies which would not discourage logical movements of workers from one occupation to another and which would at the same time safeguard skill and output standards.²

¹ See the preceding section of this chapter, pp. 143 *et seq.*

² In this connection, special importance attaches to the maintenance of close collaboration with employers' and workers' organisations. The Director-General of Post-War Reconstruction in *Australia* has pointed out that trade unions are likely to be co-operative where training programmes are well-planned in relation to job opportunities, stating the problem and the solution as follows:

Employment service responsibilities connected with encouraging occupational mobility through vocational training and retraining (including apprenticeship) vary considerably from one country to another. The laws and regulations governing the employment service do not always fix the relationship between the service and the vocational training authorities, and while in practice some kind of relationship has usually been established, it has not in all cases been as close as the connection between the two activities justifies. At present, however, there is a trend everywhere towards the development of stronger ties between employment service work and the vocational training programme. This is shown in part by administrative re-organisation aimed at drawing the main responsibilities for the two questions within the same general frame (as in *Czechoslovakia, France*, and, to a less extent, *Canada* and the *United States*), by the establishment of co-ordinating committees at various levels (as in *Canada, France, Sweden* and the *United States*) and by the more specific responsibilities assigned in many countries to the employment service in connection with the training and retraining programme.

So far as the last of these is concerned, the most common provisions relate to the selection of persons for training or retraining,

There may be some doubt as to the attitude of trade unions of skilled workers to special plans to recruit new workers for the industries in which they are engaged. The war has shown, however, that unions should be taken into consultation on the labour needs which arise from specific programmes of production. Provided recruitment is based on definite production plans, and workers already in the trade are protected against recruitment being used merely to weaken their bargaining position, there is reason to expect the co-operation of unions in such special plans. (*Problems of a Full Employment Economy*, p. 27.)

British experience during the war and the transition period has been the same, and the White Paper on *Employment Policy* included the following passage (paragraph 35) :

If retraining schemes are to be a success there must be the fullest co-operation between employers and the trade unions. Difficulties have arisen in the past because some sections of industry have been reluctant to admit trainees. There have been various reasons for these difficulties, including rules and practices which were devised to safeguard the security of employment of existing workers and their wage standards, and to maintain a proper standard of skill. In some cases the difficulty has been increased by competition between unions. During this war causes of friction, including demarcation, have been greatly reduced; and the Government believe that with the creation of conditions designed to produce full employment and stability, all parties in industry will agree that existing rules and practices may safely be modified to allow the ready admission of trainees, provided that proper steps are taken to train them to a standard which will justify the payment of the recognised rate of wages. Care will also be taken to ensure that the number of trainees does not exceed the number capable of being absorbed in the particular trade.

the determination of the content of training and retraining courses, and the placement of workers following the completion of their training. Applications for training or retraining are often, as in *Great Britain*, made through the employment service, since the local offices of the service come into contact with the bulk of the unemployed portion of the labour force, and in some countries the final selection of those to be admitted to the various courses of training or retraining is left in the hands of the employment service. In *France* the manpower services are responsible for the medical and psycho-technical examination of candidates for retraining, for selecting those to be admitted to training, and for allocating them, according to their aptitudes and wishes, to particular centres and courses. In *Canada* the employment service determines the need for training or retraining and has established local and regional selection committees for choosing persons for admission to training and referring them to suitable courses. Often the task of selecting workers for training falls to the employment service in virtue of the statutory condition attaching to the receipt of unemployment benefit which requires insured workers, while receiving benefit, to be prepared to undertake a course of training or retraining to fit them to accept employment, if directed to do so by the responsible authorities.

In the determination of the content of the training programme, the employment service is able to be of the greatest practical assistance, owing to its fund of national and local employment information. This task has been explicitly assigned to the new Commonwealth Employment Service in *Australia*, to the National Employment Service in *New Zealand*, to the manpower services in *France*, and to the *Swedish* Employment Market Commission, and it has been assumed, to a greater or less extent, in a wide variety of other countries, including *Canada*, *Belgium*, *Great Britain*, the *Netherlands* and *Switzerland*. It is a responsibility of the employment service which is being increasingly stressed, since many countries appreciate that the whole training or retraining programme must be closely integrated with the development of employment opportunities according to production requirements. In *Australia*, for example, where the Commonwealth Employment Service is just being organised, the Service is already undertaking a variety of research projects, including job analyses and changes in skill requirements for various occupations and industries, which, in addition to its current information on the employment situation, will be used to assist in planning and determining the content of training and retraining courses carried out either under the present Reconstruction Training Scheme,

or by the Industrial Training Division of the Department of Labour and National Service, or by the State Education Departments. In *Bulgaria* and *Czechoslovakia* the reorganised employment offices have been urged to concentrate on watching and reporting on employment market trends likely to affect training requirements.

So far as the placement of trainees in employment is concerned, the employment service has been authorised or instructed to provide such facilities in a number of countries, including *Canada*, *Denmark*, *France*, *Great Britain*, *India*, *Sweden* and *Switzerland*. In *Hungary* the trade union employment offices are required to provide specialised placement facilities for apprentices. In a number of other countries, the employment service seeks to encourage persons completing their vocational training or retraining to find their jobs through a public employment office.

In some countries, the employment service has certain additional responsibilities connected with training and retraining. In *Belgium*, for instance, the centres for the retraining of skilled workers for industries suffering from a shortage of such workers are set up by the Provisional Unemployment Fund, to which the employment service is responsible. Moreover, individual retraining contracts may be concluded with private employers under the auspices of the employment service, and the service supervises the retraining so provided. In *France* the manpower services exercise general supervision over the operation of training and retraining centres for adults. In *Sweden* the Employment Market Commission is instructed to plan and carry out Government measures to promote the transfer of workers to other industries so far as may be necessary to secure the best use of available labour. In *New Zealand* the Employment Service, in carrying out its general mandate of "assisting persons who require occupational readjustment or training or other assistance to enable them to continue or resume full-time employment", plans to enable persons to change their type of employment and to move into higher skilled categories and to promote such upgrading throughout the entire occupational structure, working in close co-operation with the universities and technical colleges, the educational authorities, and the training authorities of the Department of Rehabilitation. This aim of retraining is being stressed in a number of European countries, including *Czechoslovakia* and *France*, in both of which countries the acute manpower shortage requires the transfer of workers from less productive or unproductive work into productive occupations. In the *Argentine Republic* the National Employment Service is required to keep constantly in touch with public

and private vocational schools and schools of arts and crafts for the purpose of keeping itself informed of the supply of skilled workers seeking employment and ensuring the registration of these workers with the employment offices. In *Australia* it is planned to put the Employment Service in a position where it will be able to recommend the initiation of special training or retraining courses to increase the number of workers in any particular occupation or to adapt the skills of unemployed workers to changed job opportunities. In some countries, the employment offices are responsible for paying training allowances and making other grants and loans to persons undergoing training or retraining courses approved by the employment service. In *Switzerland* the employment offices are encouraged to take considerable initiative in encouraging employers to organise the retraining of unemployed workers for particular trades and occupations, as, for example, the shoe industry. In *Canada* the National Employment Service, in co-operation with the vocational training authorities, is making an intensive survey of opportunities for placing war veterans in training-on-the-job posts.

At the present time, in a number of countries, including in fact most countries of continental *Europe*, *Canada*, *India*, *South Africa* and the *United States*, the whole question of employment service participation in training policy and procedures is under consideration, with a view to developing machinery for promoting far more direct and effective association between the activities in the two fields. The *United States* Employment Service has been emphasising the importance of close links, at all administrative levels, between employment service and vocational training activities. It has urged its local offices, in particular, to lend their support in the setting up of co-ordinating councils on these questions; for example, an instruction to these offices, dated 11 September 1945, states: "The existence of a training council on which the employment office is represented, and the extent to which its recommendations ensure that training curricula are geared to employment requirements, indicates achievement of one of the objectives [of the Employment Service] in the community participation programme."

Finally, the employment service may frequently encourage occupational mobility by giving assistance to the appropriate authorities in defining and interpreting the conditions in which persons in receipt of unemployment benefit or allowance should be required indirectly, under penalty of suspension of benefit or allowance, to accept available employment outside their own trade or occupation. The practical definition of the phrase "suitable employment" under

unemployment insurance and assistance schemes has always varied with employment conditions. What was considered reasonable in wartime may not be reasonable during the transition and what is reasonable now may not be considered reasonable later. The problem in this connection is to prevent the interpretation of the phrase from being too rigid, and thus an obstacle to needed occupational mobility, and to modify the interpretation in the light of the employment situation so far as this is possible without injustice or risk of injustice to the workers concerned. While the final decision on disqualifications for refusal of suitable employment, and thus on the suitability of the employment itself, rests as a rule with the authorities responsible for administering unemployment insurance and assistance measures, the employment service becomes, by the character of its work, the agency responsible for determining the employments considered suitable in the first instance and for referring applicants to such work. Its activities in so doing are necessarily closely connected with the promotion of occupational mobility.

The chief consideration which must enter into account in limiting the right of an unemployed worker to adhere to his own occupation is his prospect of re-employment, either in his work place or through transfer to another area. Laws, regulations or administrative instructions concerning what should be considered "suitable employment" usually include a reference to several or all of the following factors:

(a) The job offered must be suitable from the point of view of the applicant's training and experience (that is, it must utilise his top skill wherever possible or the closest comparable or related skill).

(b) The wages and conditions of work must correspond to those prevailing by collective agreement or otherwise, for the same type of work in the locality (sometimes it is also specified that they must not be such as to depress existing wages or conditions).

(c) The job offered must be appropriate to the man's physical, and sometimes intellectual, capacity and must not endanger health or morals.

(d) It must not materially hinder a return to the person's former occupation, especially in the case of a person whose capacities in that occupation have been demonstrated over a period of years and who can hope eventually to find employment once again in that occupation.

(e) In some cases (as in *Sweden*) the law itself specifies that the suitability of the job must be determined in the light of other

special circumstances calling for consideration in relation to the persons applying for employment or the nature of the employment; in most cases, instructions specify that such circumstances must be taken into account in reaching individual decisions.

These factors do not necessarily involve a change of occupation. Many of them tend rather to preserve the right of the worker to refuse to move to employment outside his usual or a closely related occupation. But in a good many countries, the definition of suitable employment is modified according to the duration of unemployment, on the *prima facie* grounds that the length of a person's unemployment is an indication of his prospects for re-establishment in his own occupation. The interval during which an unemployed person may refuse to accept employment outside his usual occupation varies (commonly from 8 to 13 weeks, but in wartime this period was shortened considerably in the *United Kingdom* and certain other countries). The period is generally decided, moreover, with regard to the circumstances of the individual case (*i.e.*, longer for skilled workers, particularly where a contrast in wage would be involved, shorter for younger and more adaptable workers, etc.). It often falls to the employment service to apply these various criteria in the case of job applicants claiming benefit or allowance. For this reason, among others, the relationship between the employment service and the unemployment insurance and assistance authorities is of considerable practical importance in employment market organisation.¹

The point emphasised in this Report, however, is not so much the particular methods by which each national employment service may encourage necessary occupational mobility. These will tend to differ from one country to another according to national circumstances. But it is of general importance that each employment service should accept the responsibility of maintaining constant vigilance in developing the ways by which it may encourage necessary occupational mobility in the peacetime economy. It is thus significant that in a very large number of countries the service is being urged or instructed to pursue a more vigorous policy in carrying out this function, and is accumulating experience of methods by which this can be done.

The Governments are therefore asked to state whether they consider it desirable that the regulations should include the principle

¹ This relationship is discussed in more detail later in this chapter, pp. 176 *et seq.*

of encouraging necessary occupational mobility, as accepted in both the Employment Service Recommendation, 1944, and the Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944, and also whether the regulations should suggest methods appropriate to facilitate the application of this principle.

20. *Do you consider that the international regulations should specify that the employment service should facilitate the occupational mobility necessary to adjust the supply of labour to present and prospective employment opportunities in the various occupations by any or all of the following methods:*

- (i) *provision of adequate and reliable information concerning job opportunities and working conditions in other occupations?*
- (ii) *measures aimed at overcoming social and psychological resistance to a change of occupation?*
- (iii) *measures aimed at eliminating unnecessary or illogical restrictions on entry into the various occupations?*
- (iv) *assistance to the appropriate authorities in developing and determining the content of training and retraining courses, in selecting persons for training or retraining and in placing persons following the completion of training?*
- (v) *assistance to the competent authorities in defining and interpreting the conditions in which available employment outside the usual occupation of an unemployed person should be regarded as suitable for him, under penalty in case of refusal, of suspension of unemployment benefits or allowance?*

ENCOURAGEMENT OF GEOGRAPHICAL MOBILITY AMONG WORKERS

The promotion of geographical mobility in the labour force has by degrees become widely accepted as a main employment service function. While more effective action, on the one hand, to plan occupational mobility and, on the other, to organise the distribution of industrial activity in closer relation to the employment situation¹ can help to reduce the need for transfers of workers from one area to another, it seems to be impossible, whatever the state of the em-

¹ No country regards geographical mobility as desirable for its own sake alone; moreover, the practical difficulties of transferring workers and their families on any large scale, combined with the personal inconvenience caused to the workers affected, have led many countries to avoid such transfers so far as possible by a more vigorous policy in the field of industrial location and national planning of public investment and development.

ployment market, to avoid a certain amount of geographical redistribution of the labour force. A good deal of the necessary movement takes place spontaneously in response to changing employment conditions, particularly in countries where labour is traditionally more mobile than in others. Experience has proved, however, that this automatic response cannot be relied upon in any country to ensure that the volume, timing and direction of the transfers correspond to the demand for labour in the various areas and industries, and that special action is needed to remove the obstacles to transfers of workers from areas lacking sufficient or suitable job opportunities and to assist the movement of such workers to areas needing labour. By such action it is possible to bring together available skill and available employment opportunities, and thus to prevent or overcome certain kinds of unemployment or to distribute the available manpower according to national needs.

The 1944 Session of the Conference realised that while efforts should be made to reduce the extent to which it was necessary to move workers and their families, nevertheless, the transition to peace would raise difficult and urgent problems of geographical redistribution of labour supply, both in European countries engaged in reconstruction and in other countries in which war labour requirements had led to large-scale transference of workers from one area to another. The Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944, therefore urged that Governments should take steps to facilitate any necessary geographical mobility of labour, and that for this purpose the employment service should take action to overcome the obstacles to transfers from one area to another and to assist the movement of workers to areas needing labour, thereby helping to bring together available skills and available employment opportunities and thus preventing unemployment.¹

It is significant that post-war full employment policy in various countries includes provision for special action to encourage geographical mobility of labour. The Government of the *United Kingdom* specifically endorsed such action in the 1944 White Paper on *Employment Policy*; the principle has likewise been endorsed by official statements of policy in *Australia*, *Canada*, *New Zealand* and *Sweden*; and long-term reconstruction plans in *Belgium*, *Czechoslovakia*, *France*, the *Netherlands* and *Poland* include measures to encourage a balanced allocation of workers to the various areas according to the changing needs for their services. In all these countries the employment service has been assigned the primary responsibility

¹ General Principle VII and Paragraph 28.

for facilitating the mobility of labour necessary to combat unemployment in particular areas and to assist the movement of workers to areas with employment opportunities. This is in full harmony with the Employment Service Recommendation, 1944, which states that the employment service should be responsible for developing methods of facilitating the transference of workers, where necessary, from one area to another, and helping to achieve the best possible distribution of manpower among and within the various industries and areas.¹ Moreover, it is becoming more widely realised that the need to encourage geographical mobility in the labour force is as urgent in countries in process of rapid industrialisation as in more highly industrialised countries; and certain Latin American and Asiatic countries are therefore taking greater interest in methods of encouraging labour redistribution as a part of measures to facilitate industrial development.

Granted a high general level of employment, the chief obstacles to transfers of workers from one area to another seem to be: (a) the lack of adequate and reliable information about employment opportunities and working and living conditions, including housing accommodation, in other areas; (b) personal resistance to a change of residence; and (c) the additional costs involved in moving to and settling down in a new place. The methods adopted by the employment service to encourage transfers needed in the interests of full employment are therefore directed largely towards overcoming these obstacles.

The provision of information on job opportunities in other areas is specifically assigned to most employment services and is particularly stressed in the current activities of the services of *Australia, Canada, France, New Zealand, Sweden, the United Kingdom* and the *United States*. Efforts are being made in several of these countries to improve the information provided so that it may be more easily available to the workers in a form that they can readily understand, and so that false or misleading information may be suppressed or exposed. In particular, as noted before, measures have been taken to make the clearance arrangements of the employment service practically useful to employers and workers alike so that they may be used to a far greater extent than before the war.² By acting as a national clearing house for information on job opportunities, the employment service can help workers to avoid futile moves and to find the jobs best suited to their skills and

¹ Paragraph 2 (d) and (e).

² See above, pp. 139 *et seq.*

desires; and it can help employers to draw upon a far more extensive and resourceful labour supply. Employment service information about job opportunities generally includes a certain amount of information on employment and working conditions — wages, hours, overtime, vacations, seniority, job transfers, union agreements, etc; and it has been found that detailed facts on these conditions are most useful in helping individual workers to reach a decision about taking up employment in a new place of work. In *France* and several other countries, it is obligatory to include such information on all vacancies registered for clearance.

However complete, information of these kinds about job opportunities in other areas is not enough. A great many workers have a deeply rooted resistance to moving from one area to another, even if they can be guaranteed suitable employment at standard wages and conditions. They far prefer to stay in the community to which they have belonged, instead of being forced to break the continuity of social life for themselves and their families and to start to build these ties anew in some unfamiliar place. They need to be convinced that they will be able to make satisfactory living arrangements in the new area and that their personal and social difficulties will be soluble. In most countries, the employment service has accepted little or no responsibility for providing workers seeking jobs in other areas with accurate information on living conditions in those areas. During the war of 1939-1945, however, this situation was altered to some extent in several countries, particularly in *Great Britain*. Where there was an urgent need for transfers of workers to other areas, the employment service found that it had to accept considerable responsibility for supplying the workers to be transferred with data on living conditions, as well as with standard information on employment conditions in their new jobs. In *Canada* and the *United States*, where the problem was less acute in some ways, it was also found that as a rule workers were more willing to move to war employment in other areas if before taking their decision they had access to knowledge about housing, schools, local living costs, shopping and recreation facilities, churches, etc., in the areas offering employment. Housing problems, in particular, have been one of the greatest barriers to geographical mobility, and information on the accommodation available in the different areas with job opportunities is of special importance. In both *France* and *Bulgaria*, for example, it was found that the lack of information regarding the availability of food and lodging had held up needed movements of workers; and the employment offices are now required

to provide such information in clearing orders from one area to another. For many workers, friendly encouragement and advice from the employment service staff may be all that is necessary to weight the scales in favour of transfer to a new work place.

The financial obstacles to a desirable movement of workers from one area to another are serious, but are comparatively easily overcome once their full significance as deterrents to transfer is appreciated. These obstacles include the travelling expenses of the worker and his family, the cost of moving household belongings, and the extra expense in settling down in the new area and terminating liabilities in the old area. The sum total of these costs has often been far beyond the means of individual workers who otherwise would be willing, even at considerable personal sacrifice, to move elsewhere. Before the war of 1939-1945, the employment service in a number of European countries was authorised to pay the travelling expenses, and sometimes removal benefits of various kinds, for unemployed workers who agreed to move to other areas for suitable employment or retraining found for them through the employment service; during the depression, this practice was extended as one method of overcoming unemployment. During the war, it became far more widespread as a part of war manpower mobilisation schemes, and most countries have continued the practice in order to facilitate employment readjustment during the transition and reconstruction period.

The Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944, urges that "where a worker is transferred from one area to another on the initiative or with the consent of the employment service, arrangements should be made to grant travelling expenses and to assist the worker to meet initial expenses in the new place of work by granting or advancing him a specified amount, fixed according to the circumstances".¹ This paragraph has general application to the post-war period. It can be useful in discouraging haphazard transference, as well as encouraging moves considered useful for promoting high and stable employment, since the employment service is in a position to appraise the proposed transfer before the financial aid is authorised. Several countries have already taken steps to apply similar measures in the interests of full employment.

In *Australia* provision has been made for the advance of fares to assist the movement of workers from one area to another, and the question of providing additional financial assistance to workers

¹ Paragraph 29 (1).

ready to take up available employment away from home is now under consideration by the Commonwealth Government.

In *Canada* the employment service, which greatly assisted the wartime movement of workers, is equipped to perform the same task in the post-war period. In addition to providing information on the supply of and demand for labour in other areas, the service provides financial assistance to discharged workers to enable them to return home or to settle in other areas with better employment prospects. The financial aid granted by the employment service is authorised by an Order in Council of 6 March 1945 (P.C. 1415), under which, in such areas and at such times as may be specified by the Minister of Labour, the service may pay the travelling expenses of a discharged worker and his dependants either to his former place of residence or to a place where there is a reasonable prospect of employment.

During 1946 *Great Britain* introduced a scheme of financial incentives to workers moving from one area to another in search of suitable employment. Under this scheme, which came into operation on 1 May 1946, financial assistance may be given to certain workers who, with the approval of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, are prepared in the interests of full employment to leave their present home areas and resettle permanently in a new area in Great Britain. One of the most serious obstacles to such transfers is the cost of resettlement in a new area, and it is with the object of assisting workers to surmount this obstacle that the new scheme is being introduced. It applies to persons who satisfy certain conditions of eligibility and whose resettlement in a new area has received the prior approval of the Ministry. The types of cases specified as suitable for assistance under the scheme are as follows:

(1) The permanent transfer of key personnel for the purpose of establishing new industries or extending the scope of existing ones in areas where it is desired to encourage the growth or diversification of industry in pursuance of the Government's employment policy. Persons already transferred who would be suitable as key workers are eligible for assistance towards permanent resettlement. These workers are, in general, skilled workers, to a large extent employees of the firms concerned, detached from their old establishments and transferred as nucleus staff to the new establishments.

(2) The permanent transfer of unemployed workers from areas where the prospects of employment for them are poor to areas where the prospects are good. These are workers (*a*) who have no good

prospects of suitable regular employment in the home area in the immediate future; (b) who are willing to transfer permanently with their dependants and household effects; and (c) who have been accepted for a job in a new area where they may expect to get regular work for which suitable local unemployed persons are not available.

(3) The permanent resettlement of workers already in employment away from home for whom there are no good prospects of employment in the home area. These workers are assisted to resettle either in the area where they are now employed or in another area according to the existence of regular employment for which suitable persons are not available locally.

The main facilities available are: (a) free fares to the new area for the worker and his dependants; (b) a travelling allowance for unemployed workers to meet the incidental expenses of the journey; (c) a settling-in grant of 24s. 6d. (for both men and women); (d) financial assistance towards the cost of removal of household effects; (e) a lodging allowance of 24s. 6d. a week for a period up to three months for married men (and unmarried workers with similar responsibilities) while seeking family accommodation in the new area; and (f) a continuing liabilities allowance of up to 24s. 6d. a week in cases other than those under (e) for the minimum period necessary to dispose of a liability for payments in respect of the old home. The period of three months for which lodging allowances are payable gives transferred workers a reasonable opportunity, in normal times, of securing suitable accommodation for their dependants in the new area. It is recognised, however, that, until the housing situation improves, a longer search may often be necessary before accommodation can be secured. The limit of three months to the payment of lodging allowances has not therefore been enforced at the outset, but allowances are continued in suitable cases beyond the three-month period, provided that the workers concerned are making all reasonable efforts to find accommodation.

Special assistance in time of sickness or domestic misfortune is available for three months after transfer, and where workers with dependants are concerned, for so long as separation from the dependants necessarily continues. In the latter case, there is also provision for workers to receive railway warrants twice a year for the purpose of visiting their dependants, at a cost of 7s. 6d. on each occasion.¹

¹ *Ministry of Labour Gazette*, May 1946, p. 118.

In *India* a certain amount of financial aid is granted ex-service personnel to help them to move to available employment or training in other areas. In *New Zealand* the Employment Service is authorised to pay the travel expenses of workers requested by the Service to move from a place where employment is not available to a place where it is available. The *United States* Employment Service has urged that it should be authorised to encourage a programme of assisted transfers, but so far funds for this purpose have not been made available.

On the continent of Europe the need for geographical mobility in the labour force has been particularly acute following the end of the war, and special measures have been taken in most of these countries to induce workers to move to useful employment in other areas and to discourage them from moving in a haphazard manner. In *Bulgaria* the employment service has been instructed to pay the travelling expenses of workers (provided they are not covered by the employer) who are registered with the service, who cannot be placed in their home area and who are going to employment approved by the service. In *France*, in accordance with a Decree of 2 February 1945 supplemented by an Order of 20 April 1945, a scheme of assisted transfer was introduced whereby unemployed workers transferred through the employment service to employment in other areas receive, in addition to the wage for their new jobs, a daily transfer benefit fixed according to the home area of the worker and his family responsibilities; this benefit is paid by the State and charged to the National Unemployment Fund. Transferred workers are also entitled to special vacation arrangements and free transport for home visits. The Ministry of Labour proposes to increase these benefits still further and to add to them a special displacement bonus and a food bonus. The French legislation has the double aim of overcoming unemployment in particular areas and of facilitating the labour transference needed to place the available workers in the employments which most need to be filled. In *Czechoslovakia*, where considerable geographical transfers of labour are required to carry out the Two-Year Plan, the labour offices are responsible for ensuring that the workers concerned are fully protected and that all the social aspects of the transfers (transport, lodging, food, and general living conditions) are arranged as satisfactorily as possible. In *Sweden* the problem of providing incentives to transference has been given special attention. The employment service may pay the travelling expenses of involuntarily unemployed workers who agree to be transferred to jobs found or approved by a public employment office and, in certain circumstances, additional

benefits (including the cost of removing dependants and household belongings) may be paid. Moreover, unemployed persons who agree to transfer to occupations with a labour shortage (forestry, in particular) may receive a bonus to compensate for the fact that they are unaccustomed to the work, and such workers (and in some cases persons disabled in defence service) may also receive loans or grants for tools and clothes and maintenance expenses during the journey to new employment. In *Switzerland* the Federal authorities, while anxious to avoid all unnecessary intercantonal transference of labour for social reasons, are following an active policy of encouraging transfers where necessary to overcome unemployment in particular cantons or communes. The Confederation makes extra funds available to cover the expenses of workers who suffer a financial loss through transfer or residence in other than their home areas. Additional measures to encourage geographical mobility among unemployed workers are now under consideration; the Government proposes that these should be based on the Recommendations of the International Labour Conference adopted in 1944.

In addition, the employment service has a number of responsibilities for encouraging geographical mobility of labour as the result of provisions in unemployment insurance or assistance legislation requiring unemployed persons in receipt of benefit or allowance to accept suitable employment offered by the employment service, on penalty of refusal or forfeit of the benefit or allowance. In a growing number of countries, especially in continental Europe, the definition of "suitable employment" specifically includes employment in another place. In other countries, the inclusion is indirect since there is no explicit prohibition stating that a job in some other district shall not be considered "suitable". Where the worker is offered suitable employment elsewhere, however, most countries specify, either in the legislation or regulations or by instructions to the employment offices, that a number of different considerations affecting the relative mobility of the worker must be taken into account. These vary from country to country, but the most frequent seem to be: (a) the duration of unemployment; (b) the age and family responsibilities of the unemployed person; (c) the character of the job available in the new area (*e.g.*, whether it is in the authorities, while anxious to avoid all unnecessary intercantonal wages and conditions) and its permanency; and (d) the housing accommodation available in the new place of work. It should be added that, in general, where unemployed workers are requested

by the employment service to take up employment elsewhere, under pressure of suspension of unemployment benefit or allowance for refusal, the service is authorised to pay the travelling expenses and sometimes a number of other additional expenses connected with the removal of their families and belongings.

In certain circumstances, moreover, the employment service may take action to promote the temporary transference of workers from one area to another. Temporary transfers of key workers may be needed in connection with industrial development, for example, or a temporary transfer of unemployed workers may help to overcome short-term problems of unemployment in localities in which employment opportunities are expected to develop in the near future, or arrangements for temporary transfers may be a necessary part of schemes to decasualise employment and increase labour mobility in particular industries. The need for such transfers is particularly acute in Europe at the present time. The employment service, since it is in a position to know the general employment situation, can judge whether or not temporary transfers offer a practical solution to given local unemployment problems, and where this is so it can facilitate such transference by providing financial assistance to those of the workers concerned who agree to transfer temporarily to employment in other areas. Hence the Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944, provides for arrangements to encourage temporary transfers from one area to another and, where a temporary transfer made through the employment service involves the separation of the head of the household from his family, for an appropriate separation allowance, to cover the added costs of maintaining double living quarters.¹

Thus in *Bulgaria* special measures have been taken to transfer unemployed tobacco workers to other employment during the dead season and to promote labour mobility in the construction industry through temporary transfers; in both cases travelling expenses are paid by the employment service. In *Canada* the employment service has been authorised to pay separation allowances, in certain cases, to heads of families whose temporary removal to new employment necessitates the maintenance of a separate establishment. In *France* a comprehensive scheme of promoting temporary transference of labour through financial inducements has been made a part of reconstruction employment policy. In *Great Britain* the scheme for industrial transference provides also for the encouragement of temporary transfers by offering the workers free fares, a settling-in

¹ Paragraph 29 (2).

grant and, for those maintaining double living quarters, a lodging allowance. In addition, a special register is kept in the employment exchange in the home area, so that temporarily transferred workers do not forfeit local employment opportunities through their absence from home. In the *Netherlands* a scheme of temporary transference has also been in effect.

The need for special action to discourage aimless migration — what the 1909 British Royal Commission on the Poor Laws called “the misery of tramping after problematical work” — and to promote the volume and kind of movements of labour needed for the maintenance of full employment has thus been widely recognised. It has, moreover, led to the development of various methods through which the employment service can take a useful initiative in encouraging economically necessary and socially desirable geographical mobility in the labour force. The Governments are therefore consulted on these points.

21. Do you consider that the international regulations should state that the employment service should facilitate the mobility of labour necessary to overcome localised unemployment in particular areas and to assist the movement of workers to areas with employment opportunities?

22. If so, do you consider that it should be specified that the employment service should take action to overcome the obstacles to transfers from one area to another by any or all of the following methods:

- (i) provision of authoritative information concerning employment opportunities and working and living conditions, including housing accommodation, in other areas?*
- (ii) measures aimed at overcoming personal resistance to a change of residence?*
- (iii) where workers are transferred from one area to another on the initiative or with the approval of the employment service, arrangements for the payment of travelling expenses by the employment service and additional financial assistance, fixed according to national and individual circumstances, to enable the workers to meet initial expenses in the new place of work or continuing liabilities in the former place of work?*
- (iv) assistance to the competent authorities in defining and interpreting the conditions in which available employment not accessible from the usual residence of an unemployed person should be regarded as suitable for him, under penalty, in*

case of refusal, of suspension of unemployment benefit or allowance?

23. *In addition, do you consider that the regulations should state that the employment service should encourage temporary transfers of workers from one area to another where such transfers offer a practical solution to special problems of employment or unemployment in particular areas?*

CO-OPERATION IN UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE AND ASSISTANCE ADMINISTRATION

There is necessarily a close connection between unemployment insurance and relief activities and employment service work. The employment service has a number of fixed responsibilities in connection with unemployment insurance and assistance schemes. As a rule, an applicant for unemployment benefit or allowance is required to register for employment at an employment office, to report periodically to the employment office as proof of being available for and seeking work, and to accept suitable employment offered by the employment office, under risk of being denied benefit or allowance for unwarranted refusal. Thus, the employment service is an integral element in the administration of unemployment insurance and relief schemes and close co-operation between the two activities is essential.

Co-operation has been facilitated because of the fact that in practice unemployment insurance and relief schemes and employment service organisation have developed side by side in most countries. In some countries, the two activities are administered by the same agency or under the same general ministerial responsibility; in other countries, they are administered by two or more separate Government departments or agencies. But in all countries, there are either statutory provisions or administrative arrangements governing the co-operation of the employment service in unemployment insurance and assistance administration. These arrangements naturally differ from one country to another. In each country, however, the aim is to ensure co-ordination of policy and practice in dealing with unemployed persons who are applicants for benefit or allowance and seeking suitable employment.

In *Australia* co-operation of the employment service in the administration of unemployment insurance and assistance is provided for in the Re-establishment and Employment Act as one of the functions of the Commonwealth Employment Service. In fact, the district employment officers are in most cases registrars of social

services under the Unemployment and Sickness Benefits Act, 1944 (which is administered by the Department of Social Services). Persons claiming unemployment benefit register for this purpose with the district office of the Employment Service, and the employment officer checks their claim, certifies whether suitable employment is available or not, and if appropriate arranges for payment of benefit to be made. The district officer also acts in the same manner as agent for the Repatriation Commission as regards the payment of the special re-employment allowances to discharged service personnel.

In *Belgium* employment service and unemployment assistance activities are administered by the same agency, and the employment service is required to co-operate closely in the assistance work. The employment offices register all unemployed persons, including those in receipt of unemployment allowance, and refer them to suitable employment, which must be accepted subject to the penalty of disqualification for benefit or allowance.

In *Canada* the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1940, combines a system of unemployment insurance with a federally administered employment service; both functions are closely co-ordinated at all levels of operation. An unemployed applicant for work registers with the employment office at the time when, and usually on the same premises where, he files his claim for benefit. The employment offices are responsible for ascertaining whether suitable work is available for him or not; if so, they refer him to it, and if not, they so certify, in either case notifying the claims officer of the situation.

In *Chile* the employment service is required to co-operate with the General Directorate for Social Assistance in the granting of relief, by verifying whether applicants are unemployed through no fault of their own and by registering them for work and seeking to place them in suitable jobs.

In *France* the placement of workers and the assistance to unemployed workers are under the same administrative agency — the labour and manpower services — at the national, regional and local levels; harmony of policy and close detailed co-operation is therefore assured in practice. The manpower service is responsible for registering the unemployed, finding employment for them, and in general exercising supervision to make sure that the unemployed are available for and ready to take up suitable jobs.

In *Great Britain* the administration of unemployment insurance and the employment exchange network were for many years within the Ministry of Labour, but, as a result of the passage of the Na-

tional Insurance Act, 1945, insurance functions have been transferred to the Ministry of National Insurance. However, the employment exchanges continue to perform certain functions as agents of the Ministry of Insurance. Unemployed workers are required to attend local offices to make claims for benefit, to prove unemployment, to register for employment and to receive unemployment benefit or assistance where no suitable work can be found for them.

In *Greece* the Unemployment Fund and the employment offices are both responsible to the Minister of Labour. The Act establishing the Unemployment Fund (No. 118 of 13 February 1945) specifies that the Fund shall be bound to provide employment through the employment offices for unemployed persons supported by the Fund and provides that the employment offices shall be responsible for registering such persons and referring them to suitable vacancies. The same Act requires the Fund to send each day to the competent employment office a return of persons declared as unemployed, and requires the employment offices to send each day to the Fund a list of unemployed persons offered employment regarded as suitable.

In *New Zealand* the Employment Service co-operates with the Department of Social Security by registering for work unemployed persons in receipt of benefit and by certifying whether or not suitable employment has been offered to them.

In *Sweden* the employment service works in very close touch with the administration of the unemployment insurance and assistance activities of the Ministry of Social Affairs.

In *Switzerland* the rules of the Federal Department of Industry, Arts and Crafts and Labour governing assistance to the unemployed require each fund receiving Federal subsidy to make provision for entrusting the placement of its unemployed members, including those not claiming benefit, to the employment service, which is responsible for registering and interviewing them for employment and referring them to employment considered suitable for them by the service.

In the *United States* there is, at the Federal level, a division of responsibility for unemployment insurance and employment service activities, the Social Security Board of the Federal Security Agency administering the former programme and the Department of Labor the latter. Both programmes are now organised on a Federal-State basis, however, and within the various States the unemployment insurance and public employment office programmes are generally administered by the same State agency under fairly closely integrated administrative, procedural and fiscal practices. The Director of the Employment Service has emphasised the responsi-

bility of the State public employment office systems adequately to service State unemployment insurance programmes. The responsibilities of the employment offices are generally similar from one State to another. The offices do not make decisions on claims; they register the claimants for work, refer them to available jobs considered suitable for them, and if the State agency so requests, may even write up the claims. But the final decisions on the claims are made by State officials of the unemployment insurance administration.

In addition to these arrangements, unemployment assistance schemes are sometimes administered by separate agencies altogether. Where this is the case, measures have to be taken to define the ways by which the employment service should co-operate with these agencies. Within the last decade, however, steps have been taken in several countries to integrate unemployment insurance and assistance activities within a general framework and to close the gaps in administrative policy and practice.

One of the most important fields in which close co-ordination of employment service and unemployment insurance and relief work is essential has already been mentioned in noting employment service responsibilities in the promotion of occupational and geographical mobility of labour. There is a clear need for harmonising the interpretation of "suitable employment" used by the unemployment insurance and assistance authorities responsible for decisions in connection with disqualification for benefit or allowance with that used by the employment service in referring applicants for benefit or allowance to vacancies. Standards must be worked out to the mutual satisfaction of the agencies charged with re-employment and those dealing with claims. In theory, there may be little cause for controversy in such matters; but in practice, it has been found that there is considerable room for difference of opinion in regard to the "suitable employment" refusal of which entails disqualification for benefit. This appears to derive in large part from a difference of outlook between the officials engaged on the one and the other kind of work. Employment service officials, interested in employment organisation, tend to take a different view from those dealing with eligibility for benefit and claims decisions, who are interested in reducing the volume of beneficiaries to as low a point as possible. The problems arise, moreover, regardless of whether the administration of the employment service and that of unemployment insurance and assistance are entrusted to the same agency or whether several different agencies are involved. Their solution lies not only in co-

operative relationships, along the lines which now exist, but also in a clear definition of national employment service policy regarding the standards governing the referral of workers to employment. In the past, the policy of the employment service has often tended to be subordinated to the provisions of unemployment insurance laws and regulations rather than being defined independently in terms of the needs of the employment situation. Such a policy is hardly in accordance with the current conception of the responsibilities of the employment service in connection with the organisation of employment, nor, in the long run, is it in line with an effective policy of protecting unemployed workers during periods of unemployment. It is not surprising, therefore, to find that in several countries, including *Canada*, the *United Kingdom* and the *United States*, the problems involved in the definition and interpretation of the phrase "suitable work" are receiving special consideration from the standpoint of post-war employment policy, and that there is a tendency to specify in more detail the policy of the employment service as the major instrument of interpreting the phrase in terms of the employment situation.

Thus, while employment service and unemployment insurance and relief operations must be closely linked, experience has indicated that in many countries there may be a need to prevent the employment service from being submerged in work, largely of a routine character, connected with the payment of benefits or allowances to the unemployed, and thus made unable to concentrate its full energies on the development of constructive placement activities. In other words, it is becoming more fully recognised that the employment service must be in a position to retain its identity as an agency of employment; and the functions performed by it in connection with unemployment insurance and relief should be regarded in true proportion as a secondary and minor phase of the total operations of an effective employment service. This principle has been strongly endorsed by Government spokesmen and trade union officials in a number of different countries, including *Finland*, *France*, *New Zealand*, *Sweden*, the *United Kingdom* and the *United States*. Its application may be seen in the tendency to administer the employment service in such manner that its closest ties lie rather with the agencies responsible for employment planning than with those responsible for unemployment insurance and the relief of unemployment.¹

¹ Thus in *Great Britain* there is now a Ministry of National Insurance responsible for unemployment insurance and other social security benefits,

On this subject, the Governments are consulted on the following point:

24. *Do you consider that the international regulations should specify that the employment service should co-operate closely in the administration of unemployment insurance and assistance and other measures aimed at the relief of the unemployed?*

ASSOCIATION OF EMPLOYMENT SERVICE WITH ACTIVITIES AFFECTING THE EMPLOYMENT SITUATION

In performing its specific functions, the employment service has gradually been led to assume a number of limited but highly important tasks in a variety of matters related directly and indirectly to the employment situation. At present, there is a broad field in which the service, while not carrying primary responsibility, may assist other agencies in their activities and at the same time, through its contacts with these agencies, enhance its ability to do its own work effectively.

Before the war of 1939-1945, recognition of the need for employment service co-operation in social and economic planning affecting the employment situation had been somewhat slow, except in one or two countries where there was considerable Government intervention in the economic and social field. During the war, however, far-reaching changes took place. The important functions performed by the service in the belligerent and in many neutral countries made it one of the basic war agencies; and the need for the co-ordination of wartime policy made it essential to link the work of the service with that of the other basic production and supply agencies and with all kinds of national and local planning. It was found that the employment service, through its knowledge of the employment situation and trend and its influence on labour supply and distribution, could assist other agencies in planning their pro-

and the employment service remains under the Ministry of Labour; in the *United States* the Employment Service has been transferred to the Federal Department of Labor and separated from the direct control of the State unemployment insurance agencies; in *New Zealand* the Employment Service is a separate Department of State under a newly created Minister of Employment, and the Social Security Department will have no control over its policy or operations; *Australia's* Employment Service has been set up under the Ministry of Labour and National Service and is free to act independently of the Department of Social Services; a 1946 amendment to *Canada's* Unemployment Insurance Act makes the employment service directly responsible to the Minister of Labour, rather than having the chain of authority directed through the Unemployment Insurance Commission; and in *Finland* steps were taken in 1945 to reinforce the employment service by removing from it the burden of unemployment relief and insurance work and enabling it to concentrate on its primary function of placement.

grammes, nationally and locally, and that, for its part, it needed intimate familiarity with these programmes as a guide to working out and applying its own policies. Thus in the major belligerent countries of the United Nations the manpower authorities became associated with all kinds of activities relating to military and civilian production, including the location of war plants, the allocation of priorities, the housing, feeding, and health of war workers, and other welfare questions. To machinery built up around the employment offices were allotted such tasks as the general supervision of labour utilisation within factories and the organisation of welfare outside the factories. In a number of countries the employment offices became contributory agencies in the formulation of national, regional and local policy in such fields as contract distribution and termination, production and labour priorities, plant construction and expansion, the location of industrial activity, housing, food supply, health care, internal or international migration and various social services. While the employment service had, as a rule, no responsibility for taking action in these or related fields, it was its responsibility to indicate what bearing the measures proposed or taken to deal with these and other similar questions had on the employment situation.

Largely as a result of these wartime experiences, but also because of the greater extent of national planning for post-war full employment, it is now more fully appreciated that the employment service, if it is to be an effective agency of employment organisation, needs these broader contacts permanently. The Employment Service Recommendation, 1944, therefore mentioned a wide field in which the Conference considered that the employment service could assist other agencies, and urged that the service should work, at all levels of administration, in the closest co-operation with all authorities whose activities affect the employment situation.

The organisation of co-operation between the employment service and other agencies whose work affects the employment situation can hardly be left to chance, once the desirability of such co-operation has been established. In consequence, there has been a marked trend to provide for representation of the service on the committees or other co-ordinating bodies set up to formulate and apply national policy, and in other ways to strengthen the formal and informal ties between the service and the social and economic planning done by public or private bodies.

In *Great Britain* the Board of Trade and the Ministry of Labour have established the closest relations at all administrative

levels, the Ministry of Labour is working in closer contact with other Ministries or departments affecting employment, such as those concerned with housing, health and education, and the relations of the Ministry with employers' and workers' organisations have been greatly strengthened in connection with measures taken to apply the Government's full employment policy. The Ministry of Labour has been specifically charged with advising other Government departments on the areas in which schemes designed to assist in maintaining a high level of employment should be applied, on the national position and prospects of the employment market and on other matters relating to the employment of labour.

In the *United States* several new co-ordinating committees have been established at the national level; and the transfer of the Employment Service to the Federal Department of Labor may likewise facilitate a better integration of the Service with national economic and social planning. In addition, the Service itself has included in the six main points making up its post-war programme co-operation with other agencies and groups in the solution of employment problems, and particular efforts are being made to enlist the support of the large number of private groups, especially employers' and workers' organisations, which are interested in current employment problems. As the Director of the Employment Service has pointed out, a new sense of responsibility for the maintenance of employment has been growing, and it is for the Employment Service to utilise this sense of obligation to the full.

In *France* it is planned that the reorganised manpower services of the Ministry of Labour shall play a central part in long-term reconstruction planning and in carrying out the measures taken for this purpose, and the principle of the representation of these services on national and departmental co-ordinating committees has been fully accepted. At the national level, the National Labour Council is the chief instrument for co-ordinating the work of the employment service with that of other Government agencies concerned with manpower organisation and distribution. In the departments provision is made for close co-operation between the manpower authorities and the authorities responsible for economic questions. The same is true in *Belgium*, where the employment service has established close co-operation with other bodies whose work affects the employment situation directly or indirectly.

In *Czechoslovakia* the employment service of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare works in the closest co-operation with the State Planning Board, the Economic Council and other au-

thorities responsible for carrying out the Two-Year Plan. In *Hungary* the public employment services organised by the trade unions function under the general direction of the Minister of Industry and therefore carry on their work as an integral part of the general national plan for economic development. In *Sweden* the State Employment Market Commission is considered to be one of the leading economic and social planning agencies and is in a position to exercise great influence on policy in many different economic and social fields.

In *Canada* it is established employment service policy to co-operate to the fullest possible extent with other branches of the Federal Government, with the provincial Governments and with the councils of municipal corporations, for the purpose of assisting them in those of their activities that affect the solution of employment problems within their particular jurisdiction. In *Australia* the Commonwealth Employment Service is instructed to work with the relevant State Government departments and other governmental agencies whose activities affect the employment situation; the district offices of the Service are encouraged and expected to take an active part in local economic and social life and to contribute fully to the organisation of local activities on employment matters; for this purpose, they are urged to keep in close touch with all kinds of public and private bodies within their areas and to be on the alert for ways to help them in their work. In *New Zealand* the Minister of Employment has broad responsibilities for bringing employment service facilities into use for the purpose of co-operating with other public authorities in applying full employment policy at the national and community levels.

The specific fields in which the employment service may co-operate with other bodies in general policy affecting the employment situation will vary from one country to another according to the structure of the economy and employment requirements. The pre-war, wartime and transition period experience of a number of countries has shown a few fields in which employment service collaboration may have particularly useful results. These include, for example, measures taken to control or influence the location and diversification of industrial activity, public works, housing policy and its application in the various areas, the provision of different social amenities (such as adequate schools, restaurants and recreational facilities).

So far as the first of these is concerned, the employment exchange service of the *British* Ministry of Labour takes a prominent part

in decisions applying the provisions of the Distribution of Industry Act in co-operation with the Board of Trade; on the whole, more reliance is being placed on the vigorous application of this measure in organising employment effectively than on assisted large-scale transfers of labour from one area of the country to another. For this purpose, the Ministry is represented on two interdepartmental panels, one of which co-ordinates the views of the departments concerned on location questions, while the other deals with questions arising out of the allocation of surplus Government factories. In *Sweden* the Employment Market Commission has been a prime mover in the action taken in recent years to study industrial location and distribution with reference to the supply of workers and their qualifications. An increasing number of employers call upon the Commission for advice on industrial location, and in 1945, the Commission inaugurated systematic advisory services for this purpose through the headquarters of the employment service and its regional offices. The services include charted and detailed area employment surveys and information regarding available sites, power, transport, taxes, etc. The *Australian* Commonwealth Employment Service is specifically instructed to work with other public and private bodies concerned with the location of industry in connection with employment planning. The Service has increasingly been called upon in the planning of industrial location. The State Governments, in carrying out decentralisation plans, are taking into consideration the data supplied by the employment offices as regards unused or inadequately used labour resources in different districts. Among other things, the Service has been useful in ensuring that munitions factories were converted to peacetime uses in such a manner that war workers could, so far as possible, be employed in the same locality in alternative work suited to their general qualifications. The *New Zealand* Employment Act, 1945, authorises and instructs the National Employment Service to do all things necessary for promoting full employment "whether by facilitating the better location or availability of employment in relation to the labour available or otherwise howsoever". In *Canada* the employers' member of the Unemployment Insurance Commission recently called special attention to the importance of the co-operation of the employment service in the proper planning of industrial location:

How many employers were able to survey the labour markets in Canada in a thorough manner with a complete picture of the distribution of skills before finally locating their plant? In the last few years, on account of the knowledge gained through the co-operation and operations of National Selective Service, we have been able to give our employers complete pictures of

labour supply and demand; and we have helped them in this way to locate their factories in the best place.¹

In several countries, including *Australia, Chile, France, Sweden, Switzerland* and the *United Kingdom*, the employment service co-operates directly with the authorities in charge of formulating and applying public works policy. Clearly, the volume, type and timing of such projects have a close relationship to the employment situation generally and in particular areas; and collaboration among the agencies concerned is of great practical importance. In most countries, as in *Australia, Chile* and the *United States*, the employment service co-operates with the public works authorities by providing current and advance information on local employment conditions and by maintaining a close liaison with these authorities for the purpose of employing unemployed persons on public works projects. In *Sweden*, however, the organs of the employment service are responsible for co-ordinating the planning and organisation of the country's public works reserve and they have a strong voice in determining the projects mapped out for execution or undertaken. The Employment Market Commission has been asked to plan a reserve of projects, suited to the employment situation, for the central, provincial and local Governments, and for this purpose has organised systematic contacts between the employment offices and provincial labour boards (which direct provincial employment service work) and the local authorities and other bodies concerned with public works planning and execution. The same principle holds for the wider field of public investment as a whole. Both *Sweden* and the *United Kingdom* attach special importance to promoting more complete employment service co-operation in decisions concerning public investment. The Employment Service Recommendation, 1944, called particular attention to the desirability of organising the closest co-operation between the employment service and the authorities charged with responsibility for accelerating or slowing down public works in accordance with the current state of employment and unemployment.

The need for employment service co-operation on housing projects derives partly from the intimate connection between the availability of appropriate housing and the geographical mobility of labour and partly from the relationship of the employment service to the availability of the skilled and unskilled workers needed for such projects. As the *British White Paper on Employment Policy* pointed out, pre-war experience showed that the worker's difficulty in obtaining a suitable house to rent in areas where work was avail-

¹ *Industrial Canada*, July 1946.

able was a dominant obstacle to his transfer. The *Swedish* Employment Market Commission has found that the same factor greatly reduces inter-area mobility, and in *Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Finland* and *France* the geographical mobility of labour has been severely restricted in practice by the acute shortage of housing accommodation. In *Australia, Canada, New Zealand* and the *United States* the wartime manpower authorities found the lack of suitable accommodation a serious obstacle to desired movements of labour. Many other countries have also noted that desirable transfers of workers were made difficult or impossible because of the housing situation, and that the problem is one of both the quantity and the quality of the housing accommodation available. Moreover, there is an increasing realisation that home ownership militates against mobility. All these matters require special analysis. They have an important effect on the type of housing programme, including arrangements for ownership, which may be desirable from an employment standpoint. Conversely, they directly affect the policy of the employment service on the question of geographical mobility and its possibilities of practical action in this field. In addition, the employment service can co-operate with the housing authorities by giving information concerning the available supply of the necessary workers and by recruitment and placement activities designed to ensure that this supply is adequate in quantity and quality. For both these reasons, there is a strong case for associating the employment service directly with the authorities responsible for formulating and carrying out housing policy. Several countries have taken steps in this direction in connection with their post-war building programmes. *Australia's* Commonwealth Employment Service is instructed to work closely with public or private bodies concerned with housing; in *New Zealand* the National Employment Service is authorised itself "to establish, maintain, and operate hostels and other residential or boarding establishments for workers"¹, as well as to co-operate in carrying out the present large-scale housing programme;

¹ The purpose of this provision of the Act has been described by the Minister of Employment as follows:

It has been found necessary during the war years for the Government to make certain provision for the accommodation of war workers who have been brought to centres where the plant was available for carrying out certain vital war jobs. We found that accommodation facilities were very limited in the cities and that it was necessary, in bringing these people along to do certain work, that we should do something towards the provision of accommodation for them, and because of that hostels were set up and are being operated by the Government. In the future, if we are going to require workers, particularly single men, to move from a place where employment is not available to another place where it is available, if we are going to say to them "we expect you to

(Footnote continued overleaf)

in *Canada* the Employment Service has been able to provide useful advice to public and private bodies concerned with housing projects as regards the supply of skilled and unskilled workers available locally and elsewhere, and on other questions affecting the execution of housing programmes; and in the *United States* the National Housing Administrator has drafted a ten-point list of suggestions by which the Employment Service offices could render invaluable assistance in the national and local housing programmes.

Another field in which employment service co-operation has been sought and given in recent years is that of general welfare outside the factories. In most countries, this collaboration sprang from the need to provide more satisfactory amenities for workers transferred away from their homes, particularly during the war. In *Great Britain*, for example, an extensive welfare organisation grew up around the employment exchange network of the Ministry of Labour to assist in promoting satisfactory lodging and living conditions, adequate transport facilities, good food arrangements, attractive recreational facilities and adequate health and other social services. Special welfare officers were appointed, working under the supervision of the regional, and later the district, manpower offices, and were required to maintain close contact with the local organisation of other Government departments, and particularly the local authorities, on such matters as medical, nursing and hospital services, lodging and billeting, meals for school children, the provision of day nurseries, etc. This work is to continue as a permanent function of the Ministry. The Ministry is also represented on the inter-departmental committee set up to survey the improvements needed in the basic services of the development areas in England and Wales. In *Australia*, the Commonwealth Employment Service is to work closely with other Government and private agencies concerned with the provision of social amenities and similar measures, since war-time experience in the Commonwealth, as in Great Britain, showed the value of such co-operation in solving community problems connected with labour mobility. In a number of other countries as well, including European countries in particular, employment service staff have accepted the responsibility of ascertaining the need for various kinds of social amenities and of stimulating their provision, and have entered into co-operation with other public and private agencies for this purpose, calling their attention to the ways in which the em-

take that employment and if you do not you will not get any unemployment benefit", we shall be able to say it with more justification if we are able to offer them reasonable accommodation in the localities where the jobs are situated. The Act therefore enables the Service to establish, maintain and operate hostels and other residential or boarding establishments for workers.

ployment situation either affects or would be affected by policy on welfare matters and social services and giving advice, as may be required, on solutions. This task of the employment service is particularly stressed in *Czechoslovakia*, for example; and in *France* a special corps of social controllers attached to the manpower offices is responsible for ensuring that the living conditions of transferred workers are satisfactory.

In some countries, particularly those which have had to go through a far-reaching employment readjustment in the transition to peace, local communities have begun to take an active interest in their employment future and a variety of employment activities have been organised, with the aim both of enlivening public understanding of local employment problems and of promoting the availability of production and employment within the community. This has been the case in certain localities in *Canada*, *Great Britain*, the *Union of South Africa* and the *United States*, largely as a result of war experience, and in *Belgium*, *France* and other European countries, largely as a part of rehabilitation and reconstruction activities. In the *United States*, in particular, the community role of the employment service is being stressed as a pillar of the post-war programme of the service. The extent to which the local office is drawn into community planning in the economic and social field is regarded as a major criterion of the success with which the office is doing its work. Provision is made for labour market reports to contain information about housing, transportation, educational facilities, recreational facilities, child care centres, shopping facilities, health services, etc., and for labour market information to be given to local employers and employers' organisations, trade unions, veterans' organisations, and other interested groups.

The machinery set up for local community planning on general employment matters seems to vary considerably from one country to another and from one community to another. It differs, as a rule, from the local advisory committees of the employment service by having broader terms of reference and broader representation, including all kinds of public and private agencies within the community. The local employment office can contribute a good deal to the success of such community planning. Its labour market information gives a factual basis for estimates of what is happening and what is going to happen in the community; its recognised functions in connection with local industry and labour give it a useful knowledge of conditions underlying the problems of the community and their solution; and the national outlook of the employment service staff may be a useful supplement to the local community approach. Moreover, from its own standpoint, the employment office

gains from taking part in these community organisations. It is able to do more effective work as it broadens and strengthens its contacts with local authorities, local labour unions and employers' groups, youth organisations and various voluntary associations, and deals with them in wider fields than those directly affecting employment service policy and practice.

The influence the employment service is able to exert on policy in fields outside its own specific sphere of action tends to vary with the character and trend of the national and local employment situation, the extent of economic and social planning towards full use of resources, and the calibre of the employment service and its staff. Thus, where there are or are expected to be difficult employment problems — a large surplus of workers or an acute shortage of manpower — the employment service is often found to be more closely associated with other activities affecting the employment situation than where employment problems are regarded as of less immediate importance. Where there is a clearcut policy aimed at maintaining high levels of production and employment and a cohesive relationship between the various public agencies carrying out the policy at the national, regional and local levels, it is easier to gear the employment service into the general administrative structure and to associate it logically with these broader activities. Where employment service work is up to a high standard, its general prestige is higher, its co-operation is more apt to be sought as a matter of course, and its staff are naturally in a better position to play a more constructive part in all fields related in one way or another to employment organisation.

The Governments are therefore consulted on the following points concerned with the association of the employment service with activities affecting the employment situation:

25. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide that the employment service should assist other public and private bodies in social and economic planning affecting the employment situation?*

(b) *If so, do you consider that for this purpose provision should be made for the employment service to be represented on any co-ordinating machinery set up in connection with the formulation and application of policy relating to any or all of the following questions:*

- (i) *location of industry?*
- (ii) *public works?*
- (iii) *housing?*

- (iv) the provision of social amenities (such as health care, schools and recreational centres)?*
- (v) general community planning and organisation affecting the availability of employment?*

CHAPTER VII

UTILISATION OF EMPLOYMENT SERVICE FACILITIES

The preceding survey of the main functions which a national employment service may reasonably be expected to perform in the post-war economy leads directly to a further central question of employment service policy. The employment service cannot be an effective agency of manpower organisation and redistribution unless its facilities are widely used by employers and workers and by the community in general. In fact, unless its facilities are widely used, the service as a whole is unable to assume a number of the tasks generally considered necessary and desirable for efficient employment organisation in an expanding economy. The question therefore arises as to the methods appropriate in peacetime to promote full use of the facilities offered through the public employment service.¹

Before the war of 1939-1945, no national employment service laid claim to be fully or even widely used, though it is true that in most countries there was a steady trend towards broader occupational and industrial coverage of the employment market and towards a more comprehensive conception of placement and employment problems. One index of the extent to which the employment service was used in the pre-war period was its share in the total placements effected within the country. Even in the countries with highly developed services, such as *Germany* and *Great Britain*, this share was small — averaging, for example, about one third of the total in Great Britain and only slightly more in pre-Nazi Germany. In addition, the range of placement activity was limited in most countries; the contacts of the service with employers in many industries and with many groups of workers in the employment market were relatively narrow. In the *United States*, for example, the former Director of the Employment Service admitted in 1945 that when war came most employers regarded the employment offices solely as sources of

¹ The national monographs on employment service organisation in Appendix II of this Report include a brief description of the extent to which employment service facilities are used in the various countries for which information is available. Consequently, it has not been thought necessary to do more than cite a very few national examples of the points covered in this chapter.

manual labour and domestic servants. "A small portion of all employers made use of the local employment offices and only the association of these offices with unemployment compensation . . . brought the bulk of workers seeking jobs to register there."¹ In *Great Britain* the Report of the Ministry of Labour for the year 1938 called attention to the fact that the large number of engagements effected otherwise than through the employment exchanges indicated that there was still a large field in which the services of the exchanges might with advantage be utilised by employers.

During the war, the employment service in the major belligerent countries of the United Nations, in the occupied countries under Nazi domination, and in European neutral countries gained an almost complete monopoly of placement work of all kinds. This was largely the result of employment controls imposed to mobilise and redistribute manpower for war purposes, but wartime employment conditions had the incidental effect of widening the voluntary use of the service by employers and workers alike. In a great many countries, therefore, the employment service became the recognised channel for finding suitable workers of all kinds for employers and suitable employments for all categories of workers, including many in both groups who had never before made use of the public placement system.

During the first year of the transition to peace, most countries dropped their wartime controls of employment as rapidly as possible, but at the same time they gave consideration to methods of encouraging a wide use of employment service facilities by employers and workers. Aside from certain exceptions noted below, the general consensus of current national opinion appears to be that the use of these facilities should be on a voluntary basis. It is considered that each national employment service must derive its authority and broaden its basis of operation and coverage of the employment market through its own ability to do competent and effective work and to give satisfaction to those who use its facilities. This lends special force for the future to the paragraph of the Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944, urging that every effort should be made by the authorities (and in particular by the employment service), in co-operation with employers' and workers' organisations, to encourage as wide a use as possible of public employment service facilities by employers and workers of all industrial and occupational groups.²

¹ U.S. Congress, Senate: *Hearings, op. cit.*, p. 42.

² General Principle IV and Paragraph 16.

A good many countries have already taken steps along these lines. In *Canada*, the *United Kingdom* and the *United States*, for example, the employment service authorities have made special efforts to draw the attention of the public as a whole, and of particular groups of employers and workers, to the facilities provided by the employment offices and the benefit to be obtained from consulting these offices on employment problems. Among the methods used are planned national and local programmes of publicity, including newspaper and technical periodical advertising, radio broadcasts, direct mail campaigns, visits to employers' establishments and trade union offices, and speeches to employers, trade unions and other gatherings; the use of films is under consideration. In countries with newly established national employment services, like *Australia* and *New Zealand*, campaigns have been launched to publicise and popularise the aid which the local offices and the service as a whole can give to employers, workers and the community. In these countries and in *Great Britain*, *Sweden* and the *United States*, such efforts have been made in co-operation with the trade union movement and with the support of various employers' organisations, and these associations have been encouraged to organise independent campaigns to promote a full use of employment service facilities by their members.

While the general principle that the use of the employment service should be wholly on a voluntary basis dominates national law and practice, exceptions to this principle apply in most countries. It has been found that there are likely to be circumstances in which the imposition of pressure, direct or indirect, on employers and workers to use employment service facilities is justified from the standpoint of social policy and desirable and practical from the standpoint of employment policy.

The Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944, recommended that employers should be encouraged to give advance notice of their labour requirements to the employment service.¹ This was a common wartime practice which appeared to retain validity for the transition period. It may have equal importance as a long-term post-war practice. The employment service in most countries makes systematic efforts to encourage employers to provide the local offices with such data at regular intervals.

Such a measure, though essential, is only a first step towards giving the employment service the comprehensive picture of labour requirements which it needs for carrying out its work efficiently.

¹ Paragraph 13 (2).

A further step is compulsory notification of vacancies. This leaves the employers free to fill the vacancies as they please, and at the same time the employment service is put in a position to obtain complete and accurate information on employment needs and trends and thus to carry out more effective placement work of particular value to the unemployed applicants for employment registered with it, and likewise of practical value, in the long run, to the employers and communities concerned. Several countries have therefore gone beyond the provision of the 1944 Recommendation and now require, rather than merely encourage, employers to notify their job openings (and often their engagements of workers as well) to the employment service. So far, such provisions appear to have operated without undue administrative difficulties, perhaps partly because during the war employers became far more accustomed to complying with requirements of this kind and are more ready to accept them as useful in developing a better organisation of labour supply. Their logic in terms of efficient employment organisation makes it probable that the practice will be accepted by other countries, as the various employment services become capable of administering and enforcing the obligation involved.

The Recommendation also urged that vacancies on public works projects, and in undertakings working on public orders to the extent of 75 per cent. or more of their operations, should be filled through the employment service.¹ Even before the war, many countries required public contractors to recruit their labour through the public employment offices, and the Public Works (National Planning) Recommendation, 1937, drew attention to the desirability of this practice, urging that the recruitment of workers for employment on public works should be effected for preference through the employment service. This proposal has a special value for the post-war period in the many countries in which public operations are assuming increasing importance and nationalisation of industry is making progress. It does not seem unreasonable to require public contractors or undertakings to use employment service facilities; it would merely mean that such managements are obliged to set an example as "good employers" in this respect. Technically, it is legally possible to impose such a condition in connection with public enterprise and the allocation of public orders, whereas the imposition of a similar requirement on all private employers might be open to challenge in a number of countries. Clearly, the practicability of such a provision hinges on the ability of the employment service

¹ Paragraph 13 (1).

to fill the vacancies satisfactorily. As a rule, the service is given a certain number of days to refer the needed workers, after which, if satisfactory results have not been obtained, free recruitment of the workers in question is permitted.

Thirdly, the Recommendation proposed that all persons applying for publicly supported training programmes or transfer assistance, or claiming unemployment benefit or allowance, should be required to register with the employment service.¹ This provision is of practical importance in ensuring a wide use of employment service facilities by job seekers; at the same time, it is one to which little or no exception appears to be taken by the persons concerned. In every country with an unemployment insurance system, applicants for benefit must register for employment with an employment office; in most countries, the same requirement extends to recipients of unemployment assistance and relief of various kinds. It is likewise a common, though less universal practice to require persons undergoing publicly supported training courses to be or to have been registered applicants for work with the employment service. This applies as a matter of course where the training is undertaken as a condition of continued receipt of unemployment benefit or allowance. Unemployed persons who are financially assisted to move to other areas in search of work are almost invariably persons registered for work with the employment service, since the service is usually responsible for authorising the transfer. These various provisions serve, in practice, to bring the employment service into contact with the great bulk of the unemployed population and thus enable it to have a comprehensive knowledge of their needs for employment or re-employment and an accurate picture of local and national unemployment conditions.

In addition to these measures incorporated in the 1944 Recommendation, one further method of extending the range of employment service work so far as labour supply is concerned has been fairly widely accepted in national law and practice, namely, a requirement that juveniles and other persons entering employment for the first time should register for employment and attend for interview at an employment office. Where such a requirement has been imposed, the employment service is in a position to obtain fairly complete information on the inflow of new workers into the employment market and, without restricting the individual choice of occupations or jobs, it can provide better advice to new workers on employment prospects appropriate to their qualifications and tastes

¹ Paragraph 14.

and help them to avoid overcrowded, blind-alley or otherwise unsuitable employments. By so doing, it can carry out, in part at least, one important aspect of its general function of helping to ensure the best possible distribution of workers among the various branches of production and the various areas.

These four suggestions all have a wide basis in long-term national policy and practice. They are by no means the only methods of achieving greater use of employment service facilities within a "free" employment market, however. As may be seen from the monographs in Appendix II, the employment service in a number of countries, and particularly in countries of continental Europe, retains or has been given relatively extensive powers to control the allocation and redistribution of manpower and to obtain from employers and workers comprehensive information on labour requirements and labour supply. In addition, a number of countries are experimenting with different kinds of incentives and indirect pressures on employers and workers which may have the practical effect of encouraging wider use of employment service facilities. It is possible, therefore, that the various Governments may have other measures to propose which would have the effect of increasing the share of the public employment service in the total volume of placements effected, by whatever means.

The Governments are therefore consulted on the following points:

26. *Do you consider that the international regulations should state that the use of employment service facilities by employers seeking workers and by workers seeking employment should be on a voluntary basis so far as possible?*

27. (a) *If so, do you consider that any special measures should be taken by the public authorities, and in particular by the employment service, in co-operation with employers' and workers' organisations, to encourage as wide a use as possible of employment service facilities by employers and workers?*

(b) *What measures would you suggest for this purpose?*

28. (a) *Do you consider that provision should be made for special measures to require the use of employment service facilities in certain circumstances?*

(b) *If so, do you consider that any or all of the following measures should be specified:*

(i) *that employers should be required to notify their job vacancies to the employment service?*

- (ii) that vacancies on public works projects and in undertakings working on public orders to the extent of 75 per cent. or more of their operations should be filled through the employment service?*
- (iii) that persons applying for employment on public training programmes or for unemployment benefit or assistance should be required to register with the employment service?*
- (iv) that juveniles and other persons entering employment for the first time should be required to register for employment and to attend for interview at an employment office?*

29. Do you suggest any other methods of increasing the share of the employment service in the total volume of placements effected?

CHAPTER VIII

INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION AMONG EMPLOYMENT SERVICES

Employment problems have never respected national frontiers and their solutions have therefore to be sought along international as well as national lines. This has been increasingly appreciated as the interdependence of the world's economy has become more obvious. So far as employment organisation is concerned, it implies the desirability of encouraging the international co-operation of national employment services in order that they may work together, instead of at cross purposes, in fulfilling their fundamental task of promoting "the best possible organisation of industrial, agricultural and other employment as an integral part of the national programme for the full use of productive resources".¹

At the 1st Session of the International Labour Conference, in 1919, provision was made in Article 2 of the Unemployment Convention that "the operations of the various national systems shall be co-ordinated by the International Labour Office in agreement with the countries concerned". Although it has not been possible to apply this Article of the Convention in a regular and systematic manner, it provided the Office with authority to act on request as an intermediary in putting different employment services in touch with one another. The same Conference of 1919 adopted an Unemployment Recommendation which urged, among other things, that "the recruiting of bodies of workers in one country with a view to their employment in another country should be permitted only by mutual agreement between the countries concerned and after consultation with employers and workers in each country in the industries concerned".

In the early stages of employment service operations, the national services were naturally concerned above all with the placement of their own nationals. In some countries, however, arrangements were made, largely through bilateral agreements, to meet specific national employment market problems by transporting workers from one country to another. Little progress was made in the field

¹ Employment Service Recommendation, 1944, Paragraph 1.

of general international co-operation among national services, despite the steady growth and expansion of these services in many different parts of the world. The world depression, and the consequent employment dislocations, brought a greater appreciation of the interdependence of national employment services, and requests to the International Labour Office to assist in overcoming national problems through greater international co-operation. In June 1933 a Technical Placing Conference was held, attended by representatives of 31 Governments and a tripartite delegation of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office. The agenda of the Conference was determined by the Governing Body in accordance with a suggestion made in 1931 by the Commission of Enquiry for European Union which had been set up by the Assembly of the League of Nations. The agenda comprised: (a) organisation of a permanent exchange of information on the state of the labour market and the creation of the necessary international bodies; (b) means of facilitating bilateral relations between the various international placing systems for the actual transference of labour from one country to another; (c) a comparison of the methods of placing in force in various countries. In view of the fact that the attempts made by the Office, as a result of the 1919 Unemployment Convention, to organise an exchange of information regarding the state of the labour market had had no positive results, and that in practice this interchange had been carried out primarily through bilateral agreements between the countries concerned, the Conference recommended the conclusion of further agreements of this kind. It considered that, on the whole, general international action could hardly be successfully initiated under conditions of widespread and large-scale unemployment. The Conference therefore suggested that the Office could render the best service as regards international co-ordination of the various national systems of employment exchanges by publishing a documentary survey of the laws and regulations concerning: (a) the admission of foreign workers to employment in the various countries; (b) the admission of foreign workers to the benefits of labour legislation and in particular of social insurance; (c) the situation of foreign workers with regard to the remuneration of labour, and working, housing and living conditions; (d) the emigration of workers, including recruiting. The Technical Placing Conference also decided that the question of facilitating bilateral relations between the various international placing systems for the actual transference of labour from one country to another should be dealt with by the Migration Committee of the Governing Body.

As a consequence of the recommendations of the Technical Placing Conference and of the general work of the I.L.O. in the field of migration, the whole question of recruitment, placing and conditions of work of migrant workers was placed on the agenda of the 1938 Session of the International Labour Conference for preliminary discussion. Finally, in 1939 the International Labour Conference adopted a Convention and two Recommendations dealing with the recruitment, placing and conditions of labour of migrants for employment.

The Migration for Employment Convention, 1939, provides, among other things, for an adequate service in each country to supply information and give assistance to emigrants and immigrants. It also provides that the right to engage in the operations of recruitment, introduction and placing of migrants for employment shall be restricted to certain specific bodies and persons, including, in particular, "public employment exchanges or other public bodies of the territory in which the operations take place" and "public bodies of a territory other than that in which the operations take place which are authorised to operate in that territory by an agreement between the Governments concerned". In addition, each Member State which maintains a system of supervision over contracts of employment between an employer and a migrant for employment, concluded before the departure of the migrant, is to require such contracts to comply with specified provisions relating to the language in which the contract is drawn up, the duration of the contract, the date on which and the place at which the migrant has to report, the method of meeting the travelling expenses, deductions which may be made from the worker's remuneration, housing conditions, and arrangements to ensure the maintenance of the migrant's family in the country of origin. Provision is made in the Convention for the assistance of a migrant who fails to obtain employment. Equality of treatment for foreigners and nationals in respect of conditions of work, trade union membership, employment taxes, and legal proceedings relating to contracts of employment are to be applied, subject if desired to reciprocity.

In the Migration for Employment Recommendation, 1939, the Conference specified, among other things, the duties which should be entrusted to the employment services, and the procedures that should be adopted in respect of the recruitment, introduction and placing of migrants for employment.

In the Migration for Employment (Co-operation between States) Recommendation, 1939, the Conference recommended the conclusion

of bilateral or plurilateral agreements on various matters, including in particular the methods of recruitment, introduction and placing of migrants for employment and the co-operation of Members in the practical solution of problems relating thereto.

This is not the place to consider in detail the various questions dealt with in the Convention and Recommendations of 1939. Moreover, the whole subject is now being reconsidered in the light of the post-war situation. In August 1946, the first session of the Permanent Migration Committee of the International Labour Office was held in Montreal and attended by 28 Governments, representatives of the United Nations, U.N.R.R.A., and the Inter-Governmental Committee on Refugees, a tripartite delegation of the Governing Body and three expert members named by the Governing Body. After a full discussion of the international measures required for facilitating the resumption of orderly migration, the Committee adopted a resolution which, on a number of points, has a direct bearing on the question of international co-operation among national employment services. In the first place, the Committee recommended to the Governing Body that Governments should be consulted on the desirability of revising the Migration for Employment Convention of 1939 and the two related Recommendations. Secondly, the Committee suggested that the International Labour Office should extend its studies and its assistance to Governments in respect of the recruitment of persons for temporary migration for employment. Thirdly, the Committee invited the Governing Body to authorise the Office to consult Governments on the points that might be included in a model agreement for the use of Governments in negotiating conventions and agreements regarding migration and to consider placing this question on the agenda of a future session of the International Labour Conference. Finally, in considering another question on its agenda, namely, that of the technical selection of migrants, the Committee called attention to the need for co-ordinating the appropriate services in both immigration and emigration countries and invited the Governing Body to place on the agenda of an early session of the International Labour Conference the question of the technical selection of migrants and provisions for their training.

The Governing Body at its meeting in October 1946 authorised the Office to begin the various consultations and studies called for by the Permanent Migration Committee. In the meantime, it would seem desirable that, when international regulations concerning em-

ployment service organisation are under consideration by the Conference, attention should be drawn to those aspects of the problems raised by the Permanent Migration Committee which directly involve national employment services. In particular, Governments might consider how far international co-operation of national employment services might assist in the orderly recruitment of labour in one country and its placement in employment in another (whether on a permanent, seasonal or other temporary basis), and in regard to the related problems of the satisfactory technical selection of such workers.

The discussions that have taken place in the various meetings referred to above, convened under the auspices of the International Labour Organisation, have all emphasised the use of bilateral arrangements for carrying out the recommendations of a general character affecting both migration and practical co-operation between national employment services. During the inter-war period international migration for employment within the European continent was organised very generally on the basis of bilateral agreements between the States concerned, which usually provided for the participation of the employment services of the two countries in the recruitment and placement of the migrants. Among the countries of the *British Commonwealth* there was also close co-operation between the representative employment services in connection with the numerous schemes for migration from the United Kingdom to the Dominions.

Both during and since the war there has been a remarkable expansion of this system. Such bilateral agreements are no longer confined to Europe but are now part of the accepted practice on the North American continent. Moreover, the *northern countries of Europe* have concluded a very interesting plurilateral agreement providing in some detail for co-operation between the employment services of those countries. In view of the significance of these recent developments, some mention may be made in particular of the war agreements concluded by *Great Britain* and *Ireland*, by the *United States* and other American countries and territories and by *Germany* and other European countries. It was the knowledge of these agreements and of some of the new arrangements already entered into since the end of the war which prompted the Permanent Migration Committee to urge that further consideration should be given to the type of provisions that might be included in such agreements in the future. Some examples are therefore given here.

Great Britain recruited Irish workers for agricultural and industrial employment by agreement with the *Irish* Government. Recruitment in Ireland was usually carried out by representatives of British employers, often acting on behalf of a whole group of industries. The employment offices of the two countries were used as the machinery for supervising the recruitment and placing of the workers. Each worker had initially to be registered in an employment office in Ireland; each job offered had to be approved by the appropriate employment exchange in Great Britain.

The *United States* encouraged the immigration of workers from other countries, notably *Canada*, *Mexico*, *Newfoundland*, the *British West Indies*, and *British Honduras*. This immigration was in most cases organised on the basis of bilateral agreements, the first of which was concluded by the Mexican and United States Governments on 4 August 1942. The agreements protected United States workers by providing that no foreign workers should be employed to displace other workers for the purpose of reducing rates of pay previously established; they assured the freedom of the foreign workers from military service and from discriminatory acts of any kind; and they provided that costs of transportation and subsistence while in transit should be borne either by the United States Government or by the employer. The agreements also guaranteed "prevailing wages" in every case. They provided that there should be no discrimination against the migrants in respect of wages, hours and working conditions, and that when the workers were off the job they should have access to housing, feeding and medical care facilities equivalent to those furnished to United States workers. The *Mexican* agreements specified that the workers should be entitled to have representatives of their groups with authority to bargain with the employer or with trade union representatives and other interested parties. They also specified that the Mexican consuls and special labour inspectors from the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare of Mexico would protect the interests of the Mexican workers in the United States. The responsibility for recruiting, transporting and repatriating the migrants was entrusted to the United States Government in every case, though the financial liability of the employer varied according to the circumstances. All the agreements retained for the country of emigration the right to determine the number of workers who might be recruited during any year and the occupations from which they might be taken. Written contracts for the individual workers were a prerequisite

to admission to the United States and formed a part of the international agreements except in the case of the *Canadian* workers who had no written guarantee, though the Canadian Government was assured that these workers would be paid "prevailing wages". In the United States, the functions of recruitment, transportation, placement and protection with respect to the industrial workers were undertaken by the War Manpower Commission, to which the United States Employment Service was attached.

On the *European* continent, in so far as it was under German domination, it is not possible to speak of co-operation between employment services. It may, however, be mentioned that *Germany* recruited a vast mass of foreign workers through a wide expansion of its own employment service, known as the Manpower Allocation Administration. Some agreements were concluded for the recruitment and placing of foreign labour, more especially with *Italy* and *Spain*.¹

Since the war, there has been a further expansion of employment service co-operation, the most striking example being the Convention concluded by the Ministers of Social Affairs of *Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway* and *Sweden* in September 1945.² This Convention provides for the appointment by the contracting countries of a joint committee consisting of one or more representatives of the several employment service authorities of the individual countries for the purpose of following the employment situation in those countries. The central employment service authority of one country may address a request to the corresponding authority in one or more of the contracting countries concerning the transfer of suitable workers. It will be the duty of the authority receiving such a request to assist the authority making the request by investigating the possibility of co-operating in the desired placement. If no suitable unemployed workers are available in the country from which labour is sought or if the workers offered cannot be employed, the central employment service authority will state that the placement is impossible. If, as the result of a placement, any central employment service authority considers that a shortage of suitable national labour or alternatively, unemployment, may be expected to arise immediately or in the near future in the occupation or area concerned, it must advise that it cannot co-operate in the placement. If an un-

¹ Cf. I.L.O.: *The Exploitation of Foreign Labour by Germany*, Studies and Reports, Series C, No. 25 (Montreal, 1945).

² See Appendix IV for the text of the Convention, which up to the time of writing had been ratified by Sweden.

employed worker seeks, through the central employment service in his country, to find work in one of the other contracting countries, the service will transmit to the central employment service authority of the country in question such information concerning the worker as may be needed to provide suitable employment for him provided the provisions mentioned above are complied with. An employment permit will not be required in the contracting countries for the nationals of those countries. Provision is also made for reciprocity with regard to social legislation. In a draft protocol annexed to the agreement, the Ministers state that it is of the greatest importance to the countries most affected by the war that their manpower should be available for national reconstruction work, and they therefore agree that a request for labour should not be addressed to one of these countries without the consent of its representative on the joint committee provided for in the Convention. They also said that the work begun before the war with regard to the exchange of young workers for training purposes would be resumed and extended at the earliest possible date. They added that the Convention should be administered in such a way that there would be no question of transferring to one of the other countries concerned persons who had displayed an unpatriotic attitude during the war.

It is of interest, moreover, that in July 1946 the *Swedish* Government set up a committee of experts, consisting of two employers' and two workers' representatives, with the President of the Employment Market Commission as chairman, to enquire into the desirability and feasibility of employing certain categories of foreign workers as a means to help to meet the Swedish labour shortage. The committee is to consider both the categories of workers to be admitted and the conditions under which the admissions should take place. In *Denmark* an office has been set up under the Employment Directorate for the purpose of referring Danish workers, primarily unskilled, for employment in *Sweden*. This office is to serve as a link between the Swedish employment service and the Danish workers.

In *Great Britain* the Home Secretary announced in the House of Commons on 27 June 1946 that as from 1 July 1946 women entering the country from *Ireland* would no longer be subject to special restrictions relating to employment. For men, the restrictions on employment are retained for the time being, but the Ministry of Labour's arrangements for placing men from Ireland in work of national importance continues. Early in 1945 arrangements were

made for the recruitment of *Belgian* women for domestic work in London hospitals. Approximately 900 women were brought to Great Britain under this scheme up to the middle of 1946 on an undertaking that they would remain in that country in hospital employment for not less than six months with the option to renew for a further six months at the end of that period. The first selection of Belgian women was made in Belgium by officers of the British employment service with the help of two hospital representatives, but subsequently the Belgian Government made the selections on behalf of the British Ministry of Labour on the basis of the standard of selection fixed by the Ministry's officials in the first place. In Great Britain, the allocation of the women was arranged through the normal machinery of the employment exchange network. The British employment service also has recognised functions in the recruitment of workers for employment abroad. Vacancies of the types normally dealt with by the employment exchanges are notified to the Overseas Department of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, and vacancies of the type normally dealt with by the Appointments Department are notified to the Department. The notifications may be made either by Government departments or by private firms. The normal procedure is to circulate details of the vacancies to the employment exchanges so that they may be brought to the notice of all workers registered for employment. Applications are received at headquarters and forwarded to the prospective employers, who may, if they wish, use the employment service machinery to arrange interviews with likely applicants. Moreover, some of the pre-war arrangements for migration from Great Britain to the Dominions have been resumed in the course of the last year. An agreement announced in March 1946 between the United Kingdom and the Commonwealth of *Australia* provided that the Ministry of Labour and National Service, in conjunction with the Dominions Office, should make arrangements to assist the migration of suitable British subjects who wish to settle in Australia and whom the Australian Government is willing to receive. In September it was announced that although shortage of shipping and Australia's own problems of resettlement would prevent the full arrangement from coming into effect at the present time, it had been decided at the request of the Australian Government to accept applications from a small number (about 600) of intending settlers with experience in the building trades and civil engineering. The arrangements are being carried out by the local offices of the Ministry of Labour and

National Service in Great Britain and the Ministry of Labour and National Insurance in Northern Ireland.

Italy has concluded a number of agreements with other European countries, providing for the temporary migration of Italian workers to those countries. For example, an agreement concluded with *France* provides for the entry of 20,000 workers to be trained for employment in coal mines. An agreement with *Belgium* provides for the recruitment of 50,000 Italian workers for employment in Belgian coal mines. This agreement enabled Belgium to place at the disposal of Italy three million tons of coal. Similar agreements have been concluded with *Czechoslovakia* and *Poland*. An agreement has also been concluded with *Switzerland*, providing for the recruitment of Italian workers for employment in that country, and at the end of August 1946 contracts had been signed in respect of 35,000 Italian workers.

There is another form of co-operation between employment services which may perhaps be considered, namely, the pooling of experiences and exchange of personnel in order that the staffs of each employment service may profit by the progress made elsewhere. Joint co-operative arrangements have sometimes been made. For example, technical conferences on employment service problems have been held by *Canadian* and *United States* officials; the Government of the *United Kingdom* has participated in the development of the *Indian* employment service; and the *United States* has aided the *Venezuelan* authorities in the same field. The International Association of Public Employment Services, which is a professional organisation of employment service staffs in *Canada* and the *United States*, numbering in 1945 about 20,000 members, and which has official backing in the two countries, is planning to extend its work by bringing in members from other countries, more especially *Australia*, *Ireland*, *Mexico* and *Newfoundland*. One of the points to which special attention is being paid is the expansion of the Association's programme for an exchange of personnel between States, provinces and countries.

In concluding this brief survey of the forms of international co-operation between employment services that have been considered in the past, it may be noted that in spite of the meagre progress made in the period following 1919, developments during the war of 1939-1945 and immediate post-war plans emphasise the need for much more systematic co-operation between employment services in the future. The present condition of the world employment market may make such co-operation far more practicable than could have

been the case before. There seems little doubt that the International Labour Organisation might now take a more positive role in assisting employment services to assume international responsibilities with regard to both temporary and permanent migration of workers for employment.

In the light of the foregoing facts and considerations, the Governments are asked to reply to the following questions:

30. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for international co-operation of national employment services, in appropriate cases and, if desired, with the help of the International Labour Office, by such means as:*

- (i) bilateral agreements between the central employment service authorities of two countries?*
- (ii) regional agreements among the employment services of groups of neighbouring countries?*

(b) Have you any other methods to suggest for the promotion of international co-operation among national employment services?

CHAPTER IX

PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES

CO-ORDINATION BY THE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

The movement to abolish or to regulate the activities of private employment agencies and to co-ordinate their activities with those of the public employment service has always been closely connected with the building up of the public employment service and has gained strength as the public service has become more extensive geographically, broader in its coverage of the employment market and more efficient in its methods of work.

As early as 1919, the International Labour Conference adopted the Unemployment Convention, 1919, Article 2 of which provides that "where both public and private free employment agencies exist, steps shall be taken to co-ordinate the operations of such agencies on a national scale". The Unemployment Recommendation of the same year urged that each Member of the Organisation should take measures to prohibit the establishment of employment agencies which charge fees or carry on their business for profit, that where such agencies already exist they should be permitted to operate only under Government licences and that all practicable measures should be taken to abolish such agencies as soon as possible.

In the beginning, the main purpose of the movement to abolish or regulate private fee-charging agencies was to provide guarantees against the abuses associated with the work of these agencies. Later, however, it was said that the existence of private agencies run for profit and therefore unable to co-operate wholeheartedly with the public service made for disunity in the employment market and also served to slow up the development of public employment service facilities for many groups of workers. Thus, as part of its efforts to promote more effective employment organisation, the International Labour Conference took up the question of private agencies once more and in 1933 adopted the Fee-Charging Employment Agencies Convention.¹

This Convention requires ratifying Members to abolish profit-making, fee-charging employment agencies within three years of the

¹ See the second section of this chapter, pp. 220 *et seq.*

coming into force of the Convention and during this interval to prohibit the establishment of any new agencies of this character, and to subject such agencies already in existence to the public supervision of the competent authority, which is instructed to regulate the scales of fees and expenses of the agencies. Exceptions to the requirement that profit-making agencies shall be abolished may be permitted in special circumstances, after consultation of the employers' and workers' organisations concerned, and only in respect of agencies catering for categories of workers exactly defined by national laws or regulations and belonging to occupations in which placement work is carried on under special conditions justifying the exception. Where an exception is made, the private agency must be subject to public supervision; it must be in possession of a yearly licence, renewable at the discretion of the public authority for a period not exceeding 10 years; it may only charge fees and expenses on a scale approved by the authority; and it may only place or recruit workers from abroad if specifically authorised to do so in its licence and if its operations are conducted under agreement with the countries concerned. The Convention also stipulates that non-profit-making private agencies shall be required to be licensed by the competent public authority and supervised by that authority, that they shall not charge fees in excess of a scale approved by the public authority and that they shall only place or recruit workers abroad if authorised to do so by the competent authority and if these operations are governed by agreements with the countries concerned. Up to the end of 1946, this Convention had been ratified by 6 countries — *Chile, Finland, Mexico, Spain, Sweden and Turkey.*

At the present time there is a marked tendency towards extending the control of the public employment service over the operations of private employment agencies of all kinds. Many countries have taken steps either to abolish such agencies altogether or to regulate their activity more strictly. In part, this is a logical continuation of the pre-war trend of national policy. In part, it has been the result of the fact that the comprehensive wartime controls of employment introduced in the major belligerent countries and in continental Europe greatly narrowed the field of work of most private agencies and in many cases paralysed their activities altogether. In most European countries, such controls still exist, and many of these countries have adopted special measures governing the existence and operations of private agencies. On the other hand, the transition to peace has been accompanied by a revival of private employment agency activities in a few countries (the *United States*, in

particular, and to a less extent, the *United Kingdom*). In many countries the public employment service does not seem to be in a position to exert a strong co-ordinating influence on private employment agencies, and little effort appears to have been made to develop methods of integrating their work with that of the public service. A few examples are given below to illustrate recent national developments affecting the work of private employment agencies and their relationship to the public employment service.

In the *Argentine Republic* the Decree of 1943 organising the National Employment Exchange Service provides for the affiliation to the Service of private non-fee-charging agencies (including those receiving grants from employers for the exclusive purpose of defraying administrative expenses), and where such agencies have been affiliated with the Service, for the grant of a Federal subsidy, with a view to co-ordinating their work closely with the public employment offices attached to the Service. The National Service is in a position to exercise general policy direction over such affiliated agencies, to supervise their budgets, and to obtain such information and other particulars regarding their operations as may be desired.

In *Belgium* an Order of 26 May 1945, supplemented by a Ministerial Order of 15 June 1945, provides for the co-ordination of the operations of the public employment service and non-fee-charging private employment agencies and prescribes rules to govern their approval by the employment service authorities and the grant of a subsidy to them. Non-fee-charging agencies may be set up by the trade unions or professional or philanthropic associations under conditions fixed by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare and subject to the direct supervision of the Provisional Unemployment Fund (the present directorate of the employment service) of the Ministry. Approved agencies are granted a State subsidy proportionate to the number of placements which they make. The subsidy and approval of any agency may be withdrawn or suspended not only in case of contravention of the regulations of the Fund but also whenever their placements seem too few to justify their continued existence. The chief methods of co-ordinating their work with the public employment service are: (1) that the private agencies must comply with all requests for information from the Fund; (2) that they must send each month a detailed report on their placement operations; (3) that they must send each week to the nearest regional employment office a list and description of the vacancies which they have been unable to fill; and (4) that they must accept the general budgetary and supervisory control of the Ministry and

the Fund as the licensing and subsidising public authority. There are now (1946) 18 non-fee-charging private employment agencies operating in the above fields; the total monthly placements of all these agencies ranged, in 1945, from 285 in January to 1,005 in July. Fee-charging agencies may be set up only to deal with specified occupational categories (namely, agricultural workers, domestic servants, musicians, theatrical and café concert artistes and circus performers) and must have been in existence prior to 10 May 1945; no new agencies may be established. Those which fulfil the above conditions may be granted a licence each year, which is renewable for a period of up to 10 years from the date when Belgium will have ratified the Fee-Charging Employment Agencies Convention, 1933. Detailed provisions to govern their operations and control their fee structure are laid down in a Ministerial Order of 5 June 1945.

In *Canada* the control of private agencies falls to the provincial, rather than the Dominion, authorities. However, in addition to the provincial regulations, a Dominion Order in Council, was adopted on 12 February 1943 under the War Measures Act, prohibiting the solicitation and collection of fees by persons not acting for *bona fide* employment agencies or offices established or registered under any Dominion or provincial law. The policy of the National Employment Service is to co-operate with any non-commercial private or quasi-public agencies or trade unions or employers' organisations engaged in finding employment for workers so long as the co-operation relates to work belonging properly to a public employment service. While co-operating fully, the local offices are instructed not to allow themselves to become agents of any one interest or association or class in the community to the detriment of other groups or classes. In no case is the Employment Service authorised to co-operate with any agency in effecting placements in employment entailing any fee, commission or profit from the making of the placements.

In *Denmark* and *Norway* the work of private employment agencies is small in volume and secondary in importance and it is hoped that the continued strengthening of the public employment service will reduce the field of operation of these agencies still further.

In *Finland* private employment agencies have ceased to exist, with the exception of those run by particular associations authorised by the State to carry on specialised placement work on behalf of specified groups of workers and licensed for a period of up to 5 years, subject to renewal. All these agencies work in segments of the placement field to which the activities of the public employment

service have not been extended or in which they have been least effective. Of the 16 private agencies now in existence, 10 are fee-charging, but the volume of placements of the non-fee-charging agencies is much greater than that of those which exact fees for their services. The fee-charging agencies may effect placements only on behalf of the members of the association concerned and the scale of fees is fixed by the State.

In *France* an Ordinance of 24 May 1945 concerning placement laid the foundation for the complete abolition of all private employment agencies and in particular for the suppression of fee-charging agencies. In the absence of machinery to administer the Ordinance, however, existing fee-charging agencies were allowed to continue in operation for a year, subject to the strict control of the manpower services of the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, and, in view of the immediate impracticability of organising satisfactory public employment service arrangements for theatrical artistes of various kinds and domestic servants, it was considered that such agencies might have to be prolonged beyond the period of a year. This has, in fact, taken place so far as theatrical artistes are concerned, but the case of each agency is examined individually to determine whether its temporary continuance remains wholly justified. The public employment service was in a position by May 1946 to take over the placement of domestic service workers, however, so that fee-charging agencies in this sphere were forbidden to continue operations. So far as free private agencies are concerned, the Ordinance of May 1945 provided that no new agencies should be opened and that those in existence might continue to operate temporarily for a year. At the end of this period in May 1946, it was decided to allow the existing agencies to continue their work temporarily, subject to individual examination of their utility in employment organisation and subject to the development of public employment service work.

In *Great Britain* private employment agencies are licensed and controlled by the local authorities. The Trades Union Congress does not consider the position satisfactory and its General Council has urged the Government to take national measures to abolish fee-charging agencies and to regulate free agencies with a view to integrating their work with the public employment exchange service. In connection with the controls on engagement imposed during the war the Ministry of Labour and National Service did in fact control the work of private agencies. Those approved for placement purposes were required to conduct their operations in accordance with

general arrangements approved, and specific directions given, by the Ministry. The agencies approved in practice were the well-established trade union agencies or agencies handling categories of placements with which the employment exchanges were least equipped to deal. As part of its post-war programme, the employment exchange service of the Ministry is seeking to overcome its deficiencies in these fields so that it may be able to compete successfully with the fee-charging agencies and may also be able to co-ordinate the work of the free employment agencies with the employment exchange network.

In *Hungary* all private employment agencies, regardless of whether their operations were carried out free of charge or on a fee basis, have been abolished and all placement work is entrusted to the public employment service.

In *Italy* the present policy is to abolish private employment agencies and to grant to the public employment offices a virtual monopoly of placement activities in all fields.

In *New Zealand* there are no private free employment agencies. Twenty-eight servants' registry offices are registered as fee-charging employment agencies under the Servants' Registry Offices Act; they operate under the supervision of the Department of Labour and deal mostly with domestic and farm labour, and their fees are regulated under the Act. The number of offices registered under the Act decreased from 110 in the year 1936-37 to 28 in 1944-45. The National Employment Service expects to expand its operations in the field of placement for domestic workers.

In *Poland* the Decree of 2 August 1945 includes provision for the abolition of all fee-charging employment agencies and for the discontinuance of all non-fee-charging agencies, except that certain trade unions and professional organisations may be granted permission, after examination of each case on its merits, to carry on placement work; the unions of hotel and restaurant workers have been granted permission to organise free placement work for their members, and other unions, including those in the printing trades and for theatrical artistes, have asked permission to be allowed to set up placement offices.

In *Sweden* an Act of 18 April 1935, which came into force on 1 January 1936, gave the State increased powers to co-ordinate the operations of public and private employment offices; but in its report for 1944-45 on the application of the Unemployment Convention, 1919, the Government noted that the steps so far taken

to achieve the desired co-ordination had not yet produced satisfactory results.

In *Switzerland* the plans now under consideration to modernise and strengthen the public employment service legislation include proposals for regulating the operations of private agencies much more comprehensively and for co-ordinating their work more closely with that of the public employment service. It might be noted that in Switzerland the different professional organisations of employers and workers sometimes unite to set up their own placement services, which are recognised and subsidised by the Federal authorities. This is the organisational basis, for example, of the technical placement services (for engineers, architects, and other technicians), the placement service for commercial personnel, and the placement service for musicians. The formation of other special joint placement services is encouraged, and the Federal authorities are empowered to delegate the tasks incumbent on the public employment service to these organisations, which are required to carry on their activities in close collaboration with the general public employment offices.

In the *Union of South Africa* a certain amount of private placement work is done by some of the trade unions on behalf of their own members; these activities are principally confined to the larger industrial centres where the unions are situated and have not so far overlapped with the work of the public employment service.

In the *United States* the regulation of private employment agencies is a matter for action by the several States, although legislation to regulate the activities of such agencies engaged in interstate commerce has been introduced into the Federal Congress on several occasions. A large number of the States have legislation controlling the work of private agencies and designed to safeguard workers from exploitation, particularly as regards the amount of the fees charged.¹ An important question of principle was resolved by a

¹ In commenting on the problem of regulating private agencies, and endorsing Federal legislation introduced for that purpose, the former Secretary of Labor (Miss Perkins) said in 1941:

It has long been recognised among experts on labour legislation that uncontrolled private labour recruiting is sometimes accompanied by fraud, exploitation, and abuse. Of course, not all employment agencies carry on these practices. Many operate efficiently and honestly. Such agencies, however, need protection from the less scrupulous.

Some few States have enacted effective and well-administered laws for the licensing or registration of employment agencies. Although this approach is universally regarded as sound for the protection of employers, employees, and the public, not many such laws have been enacted. Moreover, I believe we must frankly admit that State laws cannot cope with a national problem. The present-day national aspects of employment and

United States Supreme Court decision of April 1941 reversing a judgment of the Nebraska Supreme Court, which had held unconstitutional and thus invalid a statute of that State fixing the maximum compensation which fee-charging agencies might collect. By reversing this judgment, the way was opened for a continuation of the movement towards more effective State legislation to control the work of private agencies of all kinds and to co-ordinate their work more closely with public employment service operations. In fact, a number of States have adopted new laws relating to private employment agencies in the last few years. These differ from one State to another, but most of them include stronger and more detailed provisions for public supervision of the private agencies, and particularly those which charge fees. The public employment service co-operates with the free private agencies, as a rule, and encourages the maintenance of trade union placement arrangements. However, the employment service is confronted with many problems arising out of its lack of authority to co-ordinate the work of private agencies with that of the public offices, by such means as requiring the private agencies to provide statistical and other information on their work, to take part in joint clearance arrangements, to meet specified minimum standards in organisation and operation, and to collaborate in a general way with the public employment service. The United States Employment Service has been attempting to meet these problems partly by developing informal co-operation at the local level and partly by extending its own activities into the occupational fields hitherto covered exclusively or largely by private agencies.¹

unemployment, and the increasing migration of job seekers from one part of the country to another, without regard for State lines, have shown the impotence of a single State law to prevent abuse and the need for regulation at the Federal level. (U.S. Congress, House of Representatives: *Hearings before a sub-committee of the Committee on Labor on a bill to regulate private employment agencies engaged in interstate commerce, November 1941.*)

¹ An interesting indication of the type of work done by private agencies comes from an Apr. 1946 report of the California Department of Industrial Relations. This report showed that private employment agencies in California collected \$1.7 million in fees from job seekers in 1945, the highest annual amount on record. This sum was paid for 118,982 placements in temporary and permanent positions in commercial, domestic, hotel and restaurant, nursing and medical, teaching, technical, industrial and other fields. In addition, theatrical and motion picture agencies and artists' managers collected nearly \$9 million in fees and commissions in 1945. The 118,982 placements in non-theatrical fields in 1945 compare with 98,366 in 1944 and 211,416 in 1940, representing a reduction of 44 per cent. below the pre-war year. Fees collected, on the other hand, increased by 72 per cent. from the 1940 total of over \$1 million, and 43 per cent. from 1944. The sharp rise

(Footnote continued overleaf)

In *Venezuela* the National Employment Service is responsible for registering and supervising the work of existing private non-profit fee-charging agencies. No new fee-charging agencies conducted with a view to profit may be set up and those already in existence are to be abolished by a date to be fixed by regulations under the Labour Act.

The preceding examples indicate recent national developments aimed at more effective measures to abolish or regulate private employment agencies. However, the prohibition or licensing of private employment agencies is merely a first, and a negative, step forward, as several of these countries have stressed. The real solution would appear to lie rather along the lines of developing public employment service work to such an extent and in such a manner that private employment agencies become unnecessary. Where a job seeker and a prospective employer can rely on high quality service from the regular employment offices or specialised facilities provided in or around these offices, they have less need to trust to the operations of a private agency. Almost without exception, the existing private agencies are most active in occupational and professional fields which the public employment service has neglected to cultivate or has been poorly equipped to handle expeditiously. Thus an expansion of public employment service in these fields of work will tend to obviate any continuing need for private agencies. This is a principle of action in regard to private agencies to which the Governments of *France*, *Sweden*, the *United Kingdom* and the *United States* attach special importance. For example, in reply to the British Trades Union Congress request for the abolition of fee-charging employment agencies, the Minister of Labour and National Service stated that, while the question was too controversial to permit of immediate legislation at that time even if the Government thought it desirable, he hoped to create such an efficient public employment service that it would be used automatically by all employers seeking workers and workers seeking jobs.

In a number of countries, trade unions conduct placement services of their own, on a local, regional and national basis. These

in fees reflects, largely, increased wage and salary rates. For permanent placements in the commercial field, the average fee for obtaining such positions as accountant, stenographer, bookkeeper, typist and office clerk was \$59.55 for males in 1945, compared with \$21.18 in 1940; and for females, \$34.69 in 1945, as against \$18.45 in 1940. Fee-charging agencies in 1945 placed 8,114 domestics in permanent positions and 14,012 in temporary jobs. This contrasts with 33,337 permanent and 15,185 temporary domestic placements in 1944. The average fee paid by domestics for a permanent position was \$11.97 in 1945, compared with \$4.46 in 1940.

are based on somewhat different principles from those of other organisations operating private agencies¹, since they are used by the trade unions as a means of confining the engagement of workers to union members and ensuring the maintenance of union standards. In countries where they were well-established in certain industries (*Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States*), their sphere of operations was respected by the wartime employment control authorities, subject to restrictions needed to safeguard general priority labour requirements. In *Hungary* the entire public employment service has been entrusted to the trade unions. Where such arrangements serve a practical purpose, they are far less likely to lead to abuse, and the main questions which arise relate to the co-ordination of their work with that of the public employment service and the methods by which this should be done.

But it should be noted that the future of trade union placement arrangements also depends primarily on the effectiveness of the public employment service. Where the latter maintains union standards in its referral policy, where it specialises its placement work as necessary to meet the needs of particular union groups (*e.g., dockers*) and where through the quality of its work it has won the confidence of the union concerned, there is little need in most industries and occupations for the continuance of special union placement arrangements. Many trade unions have taken this view and have therefore urged the expansion and strengthening of the public employment service. Even where it means that this service takes over functions formerly performed by the unions themselves for their members, they strive towards improvements in the public service rather than seeking to create or to maintain duplicating placement machinery.

The foregoing considerations suggested the following questions as a basis for consultation of the Governments:

31. *Do you consider that the international regulations should include provisions to ensure effective co-ordination by the public employment service of the operations of non-profit-making private agencies?*

32. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide that each national employment service should make continuous efforts to develop its work to such an extent and in such*

¹ Certain non-profit-making professional societies which include some placement work in their activities may perhaps be regarded as falling into the same general category.

manner as to obviate the need for private employment agencies in all occupational fields?

(b) If so, have you any exceptions to this general principle to suggest (e.g., in respect of trade union placement arrangements approved by the employment service)?

PROPOSED REVISION OF THE FEE-CHARGING EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES CONVENTION, 1933

At its 17th Session, the Conference adopted the Fee-Charging Employment Agencies Convention, 1933 (No. 34), which has been summarised in the previous section of this chapter. This Convention does not fall strictly within the terms of the question which the Governing Body has placed on the agenda of the forthcoming session of the Conference and for that reason no detailed consideration would, in the ordinary course of events, have been given to it in the present Report. However, the *Swedish* Government has asked the Governing Body to open the procedure for a revision of the Convention in respect of Article 3, paragraph 4 (*d*), and Article 4 (*c*), and it seems to the Office that the present Report offers a suitable opportunity for consulting the Governments on this question.

It may be recalled that Article 3, paragraph 4 (*d*), provides that every fee-charging employment agency conducted with a view to profit which is allowed to continue operations under the provisions of Article 3, paragraph 1, "shall only place or recruit workers abroad if authorised so to do by its licence and if its operations are conducted under an agreement between the countries concerned". Article 4 (*c*) provides that fee-charging employment agencies not conducted with a view to profit "shall only place or recruit workers abroad if permitted so to do by the competent authority and if their operations are conducted under an agreement by the countries concerned".

By a letter dated 27 March 1940, the Minister of Social Affairs, Mr. Gustav Möller, on behalf of the *Swedish* Government, proposed the revision of the Fee-Charging Employment Agencies Convention, 1933, in respect of the above two provisions. He explained that Sweden had ratified the Convention on 1 January 1936 and that the Convention had consequently come into force for Sweden on 1 January 1937. The letter continues as follows:

Article 3, paragraph 4, specifies certain conditions which must be complied with by any fee-charging employment agencies

conducted with a view to profit which are allowed to operate after the expiry of the period of three years from the coming into force of the Convention. Among these conditions there is one which meets with insurmountable difficulties in Sweden. That condition, as laid down in Article 3, paragraph 4 (*d*), is that such agencies "shall only place or recruit workers abroad" if, *inter alia* ". . . its operations are conducted under an agreement between the countries concerned". Among the categories of workers for which the Royal Decree of 10 February 1939 authorises fee-charging employment agencies conducted with a view to profit to operate is that of musicians and artistes. It has not appeared possible in present circumstances to organise a public employment service which would function satisfactorily for this category of workers and it is therefore considered necessary for the time being to leave the recruiting and placing of musicians and artistes mainly in the hands of private fee-charging employment agencies. A large part of the work of these agencies consists in placing Swedish musicians and artistes abroad and recruiting musicians and artistes abroad for employment in Sweden. In order that these operations might be undertaken in the conditions prescribed by the Convention, preparations were made with the view to arriving at agreements as provided for in Article 3, paragraph 4 (*d*). As most of the countries, which might be taken into consideration in this connection, had not ratified the Convention and consequently did not appear to have sufficient interest in the conclusion of such agreements, the initiated preparations were not pursued. In these circumstances, the Swedish Government should, in order to comply strictly with the terms of Article 3, paragraph 4 (*d*), of the Convention, prevent Swedish fee-charging employment agencies from continuing the work of placing and recruiting such workers abroad which they have been doing hitherto.

The Swedish Government cannot, however, ignore the consequences which such a state of affairs would have for Swedish musicians and artistes. As fee-charging employment agencies are at present the only bodies in Sweden capable of dealing satisfactorily with the placing or recruiting abroad of this category of workers, it follows that if the activity of these agencies were prohibited in this respect, the placing and recruiting in question could, in future, be undertaken only by foreign agencies. In consequence, Swedish artistes and musicians could no longer be placed abroad by Swedish employment agencies which are sub-

ject to the supervision of the Swedish Government as laid down by the Convention No. 34, and they would have to rely upon foreign agencies which, in many cases, do not provide the same guarantees, in view of the fact that up to now Convention No. 34 has been ratified by only a small number of countries.

The Swedish Government believes that it is not the intention of the Convention to place countries which have ratified it in so unfavourable a situation in relation to those which have not ratified it, and it is for these reasons that the Swedish Government asks the Governing Body to commence the revision procedure for Convention No. 34 with a view to amending paragraph 4 (*d*) of Article 3. If this proposal be taken into consideration, the Governing Body will, no doubt, at the same time consider an amendment to Article 4 (*c*), which specifies the same condition for fee-charging employment agencies not conducted with a view to profit.

Owing to the situation created by the war, consideration of the above request received from the Swedish Government had to be postponed, and at its 90th Session (New York, October 1941) the Governing Body decided that the Office should be left free to bring forward the matter at a suitable opportunity.

In a letter of 19 June 1943 accompanying the annual reports on the application of this Convention for the years 1940-41 and 1941-42, and also in the corresponding report for the year 1944-45, the Swedish Government referred to its request for a revision of the Convention on the two points mentioned. The question came before the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions, which met in Montreal from 8 to 12 July 1946. The Committee suggested that the question might appropriately be taken up for further examination on the presentation of the ten-yearly report on the working of the Convention which, under normal circumstances, would be due in October 1946. It may, however, be some time before the Governing Body will be in a position to resume consideration of periodical reports on the working of Conventions and before the Office can collect the necessary data on the Fee-Charging Employment Agencies Convention, 1933, so as to enable the Governing Body to review its working.

In the light of the above facts, points are included in the Questionnaire with a view to ascertaining the views of the Governments on the proposal made by the Swedish Government. If the Governments are of the opinion that it would be appropriate to make changes in this Convention, the points on which revision is desirable

might be considered at the 30th Session of the Conference and, if agreement were reached, a proposed text of the revisions would be submitted to the 31st Session. The questions are as follows:

33. *Do you consider that the 30th Session of the Conference should consider the question of the partial revision of the Fee-Charging Employment Agencies Convention, 1933, in accordance with the request made by the Swedish Government?*

34. (a) *If so, do you consider that, as requested by the Swedish Government, Article 3, paragraph 4 (d) and Article 4 (c) of the Convention should be revised?*

(b) *What revision do you propose?*

35. (a) *Do you consider that any other provision of the Fee-Charging Employment Agencies Convention, 1933, should be revised?*

(b) *If so, what provisions and what revision do you propose?*

CHAPTER X

QUESTIONNAIRE

As explained in the Preface, Article 32 of the Standing Orders of the International Labour Conference provides that a preliminary report and a questionnaire "requesting the Governments to give reasons for their replies shall be communicated by the Office to the Governments at the earliest possible date so as to reach them at least six months before the opening of the Conference". On the basis of the replies received the Office will prepare a further report "indicating the principal questions which require consideration by the Conference". It is particularly requested that the replies should be sent in so as to reach the International Labour Office in Montreal not later than *15 March 1947*.

The preceding chapters contain questions relating to the different points dealt with; for the convenience of Governments these questions are repeated below.

I. FORM OF THE INTERNATIONAL REGULATIONS

1. *Do you consider it desirable that the International Labour Conference should adopt international regulations concerning the organisation of an employment service and that these regulations should take the form of a Convention?*

2. *Do you consider it desirable to supplement the proposed Convention with one or more Recommendations on the subject?*

II. OBJECT OF THE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

3. *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide that the essential duty of the employment service should be to ensure, in co-operation where necessary with other public and private bodies concerned, the best possible organisation of industrial, agricultural and other employment as an integral part of the national programme for the maintenance of full employment and the development and use of productive resources?*

III. GENERAL STRUCTURE OF THE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

A. ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANISATION

4. *Do you consider that the international regulations should stipulate that the employment service should be established on a national basis under the control of a central authority?*

5. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for the establishment of regional employment service offices as units between the central headquarters of the service and the local employment offices?*

(b) *If so, do you consider*

(i) *that the regional offices should be responsible directly to the central headquarters of the employment service? and*

(ii) *that the local employment offices should be directly responsible to the regional offices?*

6. *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for an integrated network of local employment offices adequate in number to serve each geographical area of the country, conveniently located from the standpoint of the employers and workers, and revised from time to time to take account of changes in the distribution of economic activity and of the working population?*

7. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for national administrative instructions to be issued by the headquarters of the employment service and for national inspection of the employment service in order to secure co-ordination of the regional and local offices?*

(b) *What other methods, if any, do you suggest as useful and appropriate for this purpose?*

8. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for the formulation of minimum national standards to govern the staffing and material arrangements of the regional and local employment offices?*

(b) *Do you consider that the regulations should provide for the employment service to be financed wholly by the central Government or, alternatively, for the costs of employment service operation to be shared by regional or local government units?*

B. MACHINERY FOR MANAGEMENT-LABOUR COLLABORATION WITH THE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

9. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should specify that machinery should be established for securing the full*

co-operation of employers' and workers' representatives in employment service organisation —

- (i) at the national level?*
- (ii) at the regional level?*
- (iii) at the local level?*

(b) If so, do you consider that the regulations should specify that this machinery should consist of general advisory committees, set up at each administrative level and including equal numbers of employers' and workers' representatives, together with representatives of such other interests as may be considered useful according to national and local circumstances?

(c) Have you any suggestions concerning the functions of the committees that might be specified in the regulations?

10. *(a) Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for the employment service to co-operate with any joint management-labour committees that may be set up to deal with the special problems of particular industries or undertakings?*

(b) If so, have you any suggestions concerning the machinery and methods appropriate for this purpose?

C. SPECIALISATION OF EMPLOYMENT SERVICE WORK

11. *(a) Do you consider that the international regulations should provide that the employment service should organise its activities primarily on an occupational basis, that is, with direct reference to the occupations of the persons seeking employment and the occupational characteristics of the workers required by employers?*

(b) If so, do you consider that this should be done in general through internal arrangements within the employment offices, that is, through sections specialised in filling employers' orders for and in placing workers belonging to certain occupations, industries or groups of industries?

(c) In addition, do you consider that provision should be made for separate employment offices to be set up for workers in certain industries and occupations?

(d) If the answer to Question 11 (c) is affirmative, do you consider that such arrangements might usefully be made, according to national circumstances, for any or all of the following industries or occupations:

- (i) port transport (dock labour)?*
- (ii) merchant marine (seafarers)?*

- (iii) *railroads?*
- (iv) *building and civil engineering?*
- (v) *agriculture and forestry?*
- (vi) *domestic service?*
- (vii) *teaching?*
- (viii) *nursing?*

12. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for specialised arrangements by the employment service on behalf of particular categories of workers in the employment market?*

(b) *If so, do you consider that such arrangements should be made in respect of:*

- (i) *juveniles?*
- (ii) *technical, professional and executive workers or salaried employees?*
- (iii) *disabled persons?*
- (iv) *ex-service personnel?*

13. (a) *Do you consider that for the placing of women the general organisation of placement work on an occupational basis is sufficient to ensure access to employment on the basis of individual merit?*

(b) *If not, do you consider that the international regulations should provide for the employment service to develop specialised arrangements for the placement of women applicants for employment?*

14. *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for the co-ordination of any such specialised arrangements with the general work of the employment service?*

IV. SPECIFIC FUNCTIONS OF THE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE AND METHODS OF APPLICATION

A. COLLECTION OF INFORMATION CONCERNING EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

15. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should state that the employment service should be responsible for collecting, in co-operation where necessary with other authorities, and for making available at regular intervals, comprehensive information on the situation and trend of employment and unemployment, both in the country as a whole and in the different industries, occupations and areas?*

(b) *If so, do you consider that this information should cover any or all of the following subjects:*

- (i) *current and prospective labour requirements, including details as to the number and type of workers needed, classified on an industry and area basis?*
- (ii) *current and prospective supply of workers, classified by numbers, age and sex, skills, industries and areas?*
- (iii) *number, location and characteristics (occupational and otherwise) of unemployed persons, and the duration of their unemployment?*

(c) *In addition, do you consider that the regulations should provide for the employment service, in co-operation where necessary with other authorities, to make continuous and special studies of employment opportunities and trends, both generally and in the various industries and areas, the causes and incidence of unemployment, the factors affecting employment opportunities, the regularisation of employment, the skills required to do particular jobs and their inter-relationship, changes in skill requirements within the different industries, and other questions affecting the achievement and maintenance of full employment?*

(d) *Have you any suggestions to make concerning methods of collecting any or all of the above kinds of information in order that it may be as authoritative and useful as possible?*

16. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for each country to draw up an annual national manpower budget, showing the anticipated volume and distribution of the national labour force in relation to the anticipated volume and distribution of the demand for labour?*

(b) *If so, do you consider that the manpower budget should be drawn up by the employment service*

- (i) *alone? or*
- (ii) *in co-operation with other public authorities?*

17. *Should provision be made for all this information to be made available systematically, and as soon as possible after its collection,*

- (i) *to the Government agencies, employers' organisations and trade unions concerned?*
- (ii) *to the International Labour Office?*

B. GENERAL RECRUITMENT AND PLACEMENT OF WORKERS

18. *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide that the employment service should have the primary respon-*

sibility for assisting workers to find suitable employment and for assisting employers to find suitable workers, and that for this purpose the employment service in each country should develop uniform procedures formulated on a national basis—

- (i) for registering job seekers, recording details of their occupational qualifications, experience and desires, providing them with vocational guidance as may be required, interviewing them for employment, and referring them to available job vacancies?*
- (ii) for obtaining from employers particulars of their job vacancies and precise information concerning the nature of these vacancies and of the specifications to be met by the workers?*
- (iii) for clearing job vacancies and job applicants from the area of one employment office to another so that a national system of clearance may be maintained?*

19. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for the employment service to develop rules to govern the referral of workers to available employment?*

(b) *If so, do you consider that these rules should be formulated on a national basis and in co-operation with the representatives of employers' and workers' organisations?*

(c) *Do you consider that such rules should relate, inter alia, to any or all of the following factors:*

- (i) the existence of a labour dispute?*
- (ii) the existence of substandard wages or conditions of employment, as defined by law or regulation, or by prevailing practice, including collective agreements?*
- (iii) the existence of employment practices which discriminate against applicants for employment on grounds unrelated to their working capacity?*

(d) *Do you suggest any other rules which should be included to govern the referral policy of the employment service?*

C. ENCOURAGEMENT OF OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY AMONG WORKERS

20. *Do you consider that the international regulations should specify that the employment service should facilitate the occupational mobility necessary to adjust the supply of labour to present*

and prospective employment opportunities in the various occupations by any or all of the following methods:

- (i) provision of adequate and reliable information concerning job opportunities and working conditions in other occupations?*
- (ii) measures aimed at overcoming social and psychological resistance to a change of occupation?*
- (iii) measures aimed at eliminating unnecessary or illogical restrictions on entry into the various occupations?*
- (iv) assistance to the appropriate authorities in developing and determining the content of training and retraining courses, in selecting persons for training or retraining, and in placing persons following the completion of training?*
- (v) assistance to the competent authorities in defining and interpreting the conditions in which available employment outside the usual occupation of an unemployed person should be regarded as suitable for him, under penalty in case of refusal of suspension of unemployment benefits or allowance?*

D. ENCOURAGEMENT OF GEOGRAPHICAL MOBILITY AMONG WORKERS

21. *Do you consider that the international regulations should state that the employment service should facilitate the mobility of labour necessary to overcome localised unemployment in particular areas and to assist the movement of workers to areas with employment opportunities?*

22. *If so, do you consider that it should be specified that the employment service should take action to overcome the obstacles to transfers from one area to another by any or all of the following methods:*

- (i) provision of authoritative information concerning employment opportunities and working and living conditions, including housing accommodation, in other areas?*
- (ii) measures aimed at overcoming personal resistance to a change of residence?*
- (iii) where workers are transferred from one area to another on the initiative or with the approval of the employment service, arrangements for the payment of travelling expenses by the employment service and additional financial assistance, fixed according to national and individual cir-*

cumstances, to enable the workers to meet initial expenses in the new place of work or continuing liabilities in the former place of work?

- (iv) *assistance to the competent authorities in defining and interpreting the conditions in which available employment not accessible from the usual residence of an unemployed person should be regarded as suitable for him, under penalty, in case of refusal, of suspension of unemployment benefit or allowance?*

23. *In addition, do you consider that the regulations should state that the employment service should encourage temporary transfers of workers from one area to another where such transfers offer a practical solution to special problems of employment or unemployment in particular areas?*

E. CO-OPERATION OF THE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE IN UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE AND ASSISTANCE ADMINISTRATION

24. *Do you consider that the international regulations should specify that the employment service should co-operate closely in the administration of unemployment insurance and assistance and other measures aimed at the relief of the unemployed?*

F. ASSOCIATION OF THE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE WITH ACTIVITIES AFFECTING THE EMPLOYMENT SITUATION

25. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide that the employment service should assist other public and private bodies in social and economic planning affecting the employment situation?*

(b) *If so, do you consider that for this purpose provision should be made for the employment service to be represented on any co-ordinating machinery set up in connection with the formulation and application of policy relating to any or all of the following questions:*

- (i) *location of industry?*
- (ii) *public works?*
- (iii) *housing?*
- (iv) *the provision of social amenities (such as health care, schools and recreational centres)?*
- (v) *general community planning and organisation affecting the availability of employment?*

V. UTILISATION OF EMPLOYMENT SERVICE FACILITIES

26. *Do you consider that the international regulations should state that the use of employment service facilities by employers seeking workers and by workers seeking employment should be on a voluntary basis so far as possible?*

27. (a) *If so, do you consider that any special measures should be taken by the public authorities, and in particular by the employment service, in co-operation with employers' and workers' organisations, to encourage as wide a use as possible of employment service facilities by employers and workers?*

(b) *What measures would you suggest for this purpose?*

28. (a) *Do you consider that provision should be made for special measures to require the use of employment service facilities in certain circumstances?*

(b) *If so, do you consider that any or all of the following measures should be specified:*

- (i) *that employers should be required to notify their job vacancies to the employment service?*
- (ii) *that vacancies on public works projects and in undertakings working on public orders to the extent of 75 per cent. or more of their operations should be filled through the employment service?*
- (iii) *that persons applying for employment on public training programmes or for unemployment benefit or assistance should be required to register with the employment service?*
- (iv) *that juveniles and other persons entering employment for the first time should be required to register for employment and to attend for interview at an employment office?*

29. *Do you suggest any other methods of increasing the share of the employment service in the total volume of placements effected?*

VI. INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION AMONG EMPLOYMENT SERVICES

30. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide for international co-operation of national employment services, in appropriate cases and, if desired, with the help of the International Labour Office, by such means as:*

- (i) *bilateral agreements between the central employment service authorities of two countries?*
- (ii) *regional agreements among the employment services of groups of neighbouring countries?*
- (b) *Have you any other methods to suggest for the promotion of international collaboration among national employment services?*

VII. PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES

A. CO-ORDINATION BY THE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

31. *Do you consider that the international regulations should include provisions to ensure effective co-ordination by the public employment service of the operations of non-profit-making private agencies?*

32. (a) *Do you consider that the international regulations should provide that each national employment service should make continuous efforts to develop its work to such an extent and in such manner as to obviate the need for private employment agencies in all occupational fields?*

(b) *If so, have you any exceptions to this general principle to suggest (e.g., in respect of trade union placement arrangements approved by the employment service)?*

B. PROPOSED REVISION OF THE FEE-CHARGING EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES CONVENTION, 1933

33. *Do you consider that the 30th Session of the Conference should consider the question of the partial revision of the Fee-Charging Employment Agencies Convention, 1933, in accordance with the request made by the Swedish Government?*

34. (a) *If so, do you consider that, as requested by the Swedish Government, Article 3, paragraph 4 (d) and Article 4 (c) of the Convention should be revised?*

(b) *What revision do you propose?*

35. (a) *Do you consider that any other provision of the Fee-Charging Employment Agencies Convention, 1933, should be revised?*

(b) *If so, what provisions and what revision do you propose?*

VIII. SUPPLEMENTARY RECOMMENDATION

36. *Which, if any, of the above points should, in your opinion, be excluded from the Convention and included in a Recommendation?*

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

A. ARTICLE 2 OF THE UNEMPLOYMENT CONVENTION, 1919¹

2. Each Member which ratifies this Convention shall establish a system of free public employment agencies under the control of a central authority. Committees, which shall include representatives of employers and of workers, shall be appointed to advise on matters concerning the carrying on of these agencies.

Where both public and private free employment agencies exist, steps shall be taken to co-ordinate the operations of such agencies on a national scale.

The operations of the various national systems shall be co-ordinated by the International Labour Office in agreement with the countries concerned.

B. THE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE RECOMMENDATION, 1944

Whereas the application of the Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944, requires the existence and development of an efficient employment service; and

Whereas the Unemployment Convention, 1919, provides for the establishment of a "system of free public employment agencies under the control of a central authority"; and

Whereas the fulfilment of the tasks enumerated in the Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944, involves a new and broader definition of the responsibilities, functions and methods of operation of the employment service; and

Whereas this broader conception is of importance in the formulation and application of a long-term full employment policy;

The Conference recommends the Members of the Organisation to apply the following general principles, and to report to the International Labour Office from time to time, as requested by the Governing Body, concerning the measures taken to give effect to these principles:

¹ The complete list of countries which have ratified the Unemployment Convention, 1919, is as follows: Argentine Republic, Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Chile, Colombia, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, India (denounced later), Ireland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Norway, Poland, Rumania, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Union of South Africa, United Kingdom, Uruguay, Venezuela, Yugoslavia. The Convention is also in force for Burma.

1. The essential duty of the employment service should be to ensure, in co-operation with other public and private bodies concerned, the best possible organisation of industrial, agricultural and other employment as an integral part of the national programme for the full use of productive resources.

2. (1) To fulfil this duty, steps should be taken to strengthen the employment service and related authorities.

(2) These services should be responsible for:

- (a) collecting and making available information concerning labour supply, employment opportunities, the skills required to do particular jobs, changes in skill requirements within the different industries, employment and unemployment trends, the regularisation of employment, and the causes of unemployment, and other information of value in promoting full employment;
- (b) assisting workers to find suitable employment and employers to find suitable workers;
- (c) assisting in developing and in determining the content of training and retraining courses;
- (d) developing methods of facilitating the transference, where necessary, of workers from one occupation or area to another;
- (e) helping to achieve the best possible distribution of manpower within each industry and area;
- (f) co-operating as may be required in the administration of unemployment insurance and assistance;
- (g) assisting other public and private bodies in planning the location of industry, public works, housing projects, social amenities, and other social and economic measures.

3. The closest co-operation between the employment service and other authorities whose activities affect the employment situation, including authorities charged with responsibility for accelerating or slowing down public works in accordance with the current state of employment and unemployment, should be established at the national, regional and local levels.

4. (1) In addition to the joint advisory bodies provided for in Article 2 of the Unemployment Convention, 1919, the employment service should co-operate closely with employers' and workers' organisations. Appropriate machinery should be devised to enable these organisations to assist in the formulation and carrying out of employment policy.

(2) The employment service should co-operate with any joint industry committees which may be set up to facilitate the solution of the special problems of the industries concerned.

C. EXTRACTS FROM THE REPORT OF THE CONFERENCE COMMITTEE ON EMPLOYMENT, 1944

The Committee of the 26th Session of the International Labour Conference (Philadelphia, 1944) which reported to the full Con-

ference on the third item on the agenda, entitled "The Organisation of Employment in the Transition from War to Peace", presented at the outset of its report to the full Conference some general considerations applicable to the three Recommendations which it proposed for adoption, and which were ultimately adopted unanimously by the Conference.¹ The report then dealt at length with the Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944, and after that with the Employment Service Recommendation, 1944.

The texts of the general considerations and of the section of the report relating to the latter Recommendation are as follows:

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

In presenting its conclusions on the subject matter falling specifically within its terms of reference, the Committee on employment first calls attention to two general considerations which it deems of great importance and to which it hopes to see proper emphasis given in action taken by the Conference.

First and foremost, the Committee wishes to state its conviction that policies to assure full employment constitute an indispensable condition for the successful solution of the problems with which this Conference is faced. Access to employment in the production of useful goods or services is essential for the preservation of human dignity as well as for the proper support of physical existence. Organisational arrangements and above all a strong employment service to bring together available workers and available jobs in an orderly manner, with which the deliberations of the Committee have been concerned, are broad in scope and of great potential significance for the post-war era. Nevertheless they leave unanswered the question of how assurance is to be given that sufficient jobs will be available. This assurance must depend upon the willingness of nations to adopt whatever measures may be necessary and appropriate to promote employment opportunity for as many men and women as may seek employment.

In the second place, the Committee would not wish to proceed to the enumeration of particulars without first pointing out that the application of the various principles on organisation of employment herein suggested presents problems that are different and far more difficult for liberated areas than for other countries. With the principles themselves all nations can agree, but their successful application in liberated areas will probably not be practicable for some time. Even the general size of the labour supply and the magnitude of the devastation will not be known in these areas until the workers have been repatriated and the entire situation surveyed. As for the attainment of full employment and an adequate standard of living, these goals must await the reconstruction of all the means of production. This Committee is confident that the more fortunate

¹ The three Recommendations are: the Employment (Transition from War to Peace) Recommendation, 1944; the Employment Service Recommendation, 1944; and the Public Works (National Planning) Recommendation, 1944.

nations will lend assistance in this task of reconstruction in liberated areas, so that all nations may go forward together.

PROPOSED RECOMMENDATION II

This proposed Recommendation concerns the employment service.

Paragraph 1

The Office text was as follows:

1. The essential duty of the employment service should be to ensure, in co-operation with other public and private bodies concerned, the best possible organisation of employment as an integral part of the national programme for the full use of productive resources.

The United States Government members proposed to insert the words "industrial, agricultural and all other" after the words "organisation of". This was adopted.

Paragraph 2

The Office text was as follows:

2. To fulfil this duty, the employment service should be made responsible for:

- (a) collecting and making available, in co-operation with other public and private bodies where necessary, information concerning employment opportunities, the skills required to do particular jobs, changes in skill requirements within the different industries, employment trends, the regularisation of employment, and the causes of unemployment, and other information of value in promoting full employment;
- (b) assisting workers to find suitable employment and employers to find suitable workers;
- (c) assisting in developing and in determining the content of training and retraining courses;
- (d) developing methods of encouraging the transference of workers from one occupation or area to another;
- (e) helping to achieve the best possible distribution of manpower within each industry and area;
- (f) co-operating as may be required in the administration of unemployment insurance and assistance;
- (g) assisting other public and private bodies in planning the location of industry, public works, housing projects, schools, hospitals, social amenities, and other social and economic measures.

The United States Government members proposed to replace the preamble of the paragraph by the following:

To fulfil this duty, steps should be taken to strengthen the employment service and related Government agencies and to facilitate co-operation between the employment service and other agencies concerned with respect to: . . .

It was stated that in the United States other Government agencies were charged with responsibility for some of these functions. The amendment was adopted.

The United States Government members proposed in clause 2 (a) to make the following changes:

Delete the words: "collecting and making available, in co-operation with other public and private bodies where necessary".

Insert the words "labour supply" after the words "information concerning".

Insert the words "and unemployment" after the words "different industries, employment".

The amendment was adopted.

The United States Government members proposed in clause 2 (b) to replace the words "suitable employment" by the words "employment suited to their qualifications". This was withdrawn.

The United Kingdom Government member said that clause 2 (g) in the Office text suggested work for the employment service rather remote from its normal sphere of operation. So long, however, as the word "assisting" is broadly interpreted, he did not object to the subparagraph.

Paragraph 3

The Office text was as follows:

3. The closest co-operation between the employment service and other public authorities whose activities affect the employment situation should be established at the national, regional and local levels.

The United States Government members proposed to insert the words "including authorities charged with responsibility for accelerating or slowing down public works in accordance with the current state of employment and unemployment" after the words "employment situation".

This amendment was adopted.

Paragraph 4

The Office text was as follows:

4. (1) In addition to the joint advisory bodies provided for in Article 2 of the Unemployment Convention, 1919, the employment service should co-operate closely with employers' and workers' organisations. Appropriate machinery should be devised to enable these organisations to assist in the formulation and carrying out of employment policy.

(2) The employment service should co-operate with any joint industry committees which may be set up to facilitate the solution of the special problems of the industries concerned.

The Mexican Employers' member drew particular attention to the provision in the Unemployment Convention, 1919, for joint advisory bodies, including representatives of employers and workers, and asked that reference to this matter should be made in the report.

The Office text was adopted.

APPENDIX II

NATIONAL MONOGRAPHS

The following monographs have been prepared in order to give a general idea of the organisation of the employment service in the countries concerned. It is regretted that it has not been possible to prepare monographs for all countries which have an employment service, but an effort will be made to fill the gaps before the 30th Session of the Conference meets.

Argentine Republic

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

Decree No. 2928, issued on 21 July 1943, reorganised the National Employment Exchange Service (*Registro Nacional de Colocaciones*) in the Argentine Republic and gave it wider power. Well before 1943, legislation had been enacted governing public employment exchanges (Act No. 9148 of 25 September 1913) and private employment exchanges (Act No. 9661 of 25 August 1915). By ratifying the Washington Unemployment Convention, 1919, on 30 November 1933, Argentina undertook to establish a system of free public employment exchanges under the control of a central authority, and to take steps to co-ordinate on a national basis the operation of both public and private free employment exchanges. To give effect to these international obligations, Act No. 12101 of 15 October 1934 was issued, to amend Act No. 9148 with respect to the Employment Exchange Service.

Under the 1943 Decree, the National Employment Exchange Service was made directly subordinate to the National Labour Department. On 21 November 1943 the National Employment Exchange Service was made part of the Secretariat of Labour and Social Welfare. In order to carry out its functions it may make use of the following agencies as intermediaries and with a view to obtaining information: national employment exchanges attached to the Service, of which two operate in Buenos Aires (one for wage earners in general, and the other for domestic servants) and as many as may be necessary in the interior of the Republic; free public or private employment exchanges which operate in any part of the national territory and desire to adhere to the general plan of co-ordination for employment exchange services laid down in the Decree.

The Decree provides that the chief of the National Employment Exchange Service shall be directly subordinate to the President of the National Labour Department and that the Service shall include the following sections; employment exchanges attached to the Service; publicity service; information and statistical services; and co-ordination services. A Joint Advisory Committee is set up within the National Labour Department and is presided over by the head of the Department. Its terms of reference are:

- (a) to study the organisation and operation of the National Employment Exchange Service and the services for which it is responsible, and make recommendations concerning any changes or improvements considered advisable;
- (b) to hear complaints or objections with respect to the activities of the Service and advise on measures to be taken in each case; and
- (c) to fix minimum wage and salary rates below which the Service will not offer employment to wage earners or salaried employees.

The Committee consists of three employers' and three workers' representatives, all of whom act in an honorary capacity for a term of one year, but who may be reappointed. The members are appointed from nominations submitted by the most representative organisations of employers and employees.

General Functions

The principal duty of the National Employment Exchange Service is to co-ordinate and regulate throughout the country applications for and offers of employment and to supervise the activities of the employment exchanges affiliated to it. For this purpose it is required to:

- (a) relate the applications for employment to the vacancies offered, at the request of the persons concerned;
- (b) study and publish the openings for unskilled and skilled labour in the various industries and occupations, and analyse the state of the employment market throughout the territory of the Republic;
- (c) supervise the work of the employment exchanges and ensure compliance with the provisions of the regulations applying to them;
- (d) compile general statistics of applications for and offers of employment;
- (e) facilitate the work of the employment exchanges affiliated to the National Service by providing them with the necessary information and instructions;
- (f) direct workers applying for employment, in accordance with their qualifications;
- (g) provide the appropriate international bodies with any information which they may request, and exchange information with provincial or municipal bodies.

The duties of all employment exchanges are to:

- (a) register offers of and applications for employment;
- (b) provide the necessary publicity for such offers and applications;
- (c) bring persons seeking employment into contact with persons in need of employees;
- (d) study any demographic movements which may alter the balance between labour supply and demand;
- (e) keep statistics of offers of and applications for employment and all placings effected;
- (f) inform the National Employment Exchange Service of fluctuations in unemployment.

The exchanges are also required to provide workers with exact information concerning the nature and conditions of the employment offered and, in particular, to inform them of the existence of any collective disputes in which the employer concerned may be involved, as well as to ensure that employers obtain skilled labour when they so request.

In order to carry out these duties the National Employment Exchange Service must keep in constant touch with vocational schools and schools of arts and crafts, both public and private, for the purpose of ascertaining what skilled workers are in search of employment and of ensuring that these workers are registered at the employment exchanges. It must also keep in touch with psycho-technical and vocational guidance institutions in order that the employment exchanges may use these in cases where it is necessary or advisable to determine the vocational aptitudes and occupational skill of persons seeking employment.

Provision is also made in the Decree for the co-ordination of the services of the various free employment exchanges. The object is to secure:

- (a) mutual communication of vacancies notified by employers to affiliated exchanges;
- (b) exchange of information on possibilities of employment in particular regions, industries or activities;
- (c) exchange of information concerning skilled workers registered by the exchanges;
- (d) uniformity of administrative and statistical practice.

Each affiliated exchange sends monthly returns to the National Employment Exchange Service containing the following particulars:

- (a) number of workers registered as applying for employment, and number of vacancies known to the exchange;
- (b) number of offers of and applications for employment, placing operations carried out, wages of persons placed and employment in which they are placed, arranged by groups of industries and occupations, in conformity with a uniform system of classification.

Use of the Service

Under the Decree, applications for employment must be made to the employment exchange by the applicant in person, who must enter on a card his name and address, the wages and kind of employment which he desires, his special trade or qualifications, his present employment and his references and identity papers. He must also state whether he is prepared to accept employment away from the seat of the exchange. After registration, the applicant receives a card, which must be stamped every month at the exchange; otherwise his registration card will be removed from the files. Applications for employment are classified and filed in order of submission, and workers are sent to prospective employers in the order of registration, within each trade or category, preference being given to the wholly unemployed.

The Decree provides further that State administrative departments and contractors or undertakings which carry out public works on account for the Government shall engage the workers they require through the employment exchanges under the National Employment Exchange Service. The National Accountant and the administrative offices through which payments are made for work undertaken on Government account may not cash the warrants for such work until the National Labour Department has certified that this provision has been complied with.

The following table summarises the applications for employment, vacancies notified by employers, and placing operations carried out by the National Employment Exchange Service in the period October 1942 to September 1943:

Industry or occupation	Applications	Vacancies	Placements
Primary industry	584	189	173
Food	88	22	22
Commerce and offices	787	232	144
Clothing	104	27	27
Construction and building	2,600	1,240	1,181
Electricity, gas and water	118	40	33
Printing, publishing and paper	105	31	22
Hotels and restaurants	158	37	36
Wood	339	259	195
Metal	329	329	164
Public services	117	36	36
Land transport	2,166	1,187	1,089
Miscellaneous	5,795	5,507	4,536
Total	13,290	9,136	7,658

Selected Official References

Boletín Oficial, 24 July 1943, 51st year, No. 14,661, p. 3.

Australia

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

Employment offices had existed in the various States of the Commonwealth of Australia for many years, but they had not been co-ordinated on a national basis before the war of 1939-1945. At present, a Commonwealth Employment Service is being built up, in accordance with the provisions of the Re-establishment and Employment Act of 1945; in addition, several of the States are operating employment service systems.

To meet wartime needs, a Commonwealth-wide system of employment organisation was introduced under the National Security (Man Power) Regulations, dated 31 January 1942. These Regulations provided for the appointment of a Commonwealth Director-General of Man Power, who, subject to the direction of the Minister of Labour, was responsible for organising the Commonwealth's manpower resources. In each State, a Deputy-General of Man Power was appointed. To act as local offices, 25 national service offices were set up (one for each military district). Whenever possible, the pre-war offices and staff of the State employment services were taken over and used in the wartime machinery. Committees of advice were established for the Commonwealth and in the States, consisting of two persons nominated by employers' and two by workers' organisations and an independent chairman. The Man Power Regulations were repealed and the national service offices ceased to exist as such on 1 May 1946.

In 1945 the Re-establishment and Employment Act was adopted, providing for the creation of a Commonwealth Employment Service as a part of the Department of Labour and Industry. The Service was formally inaugurated on 1 May 1946. The main purpose is to organise a national service, decentralised in operation to suit the constitutional structure of the Commonwealth. Thus the Service operates on a Commonwealth-wide basis, with a central headquarters staffed with key officers concerned with policy formulation, inspection and research. It is based, however, on the State structure, a regional headquarters being set up in each State and divided into three main sections — employment, rehabilitation and administrative, with subsidiary sections covering research and vocational guidance. Locally, the Service works through some 150 district offices set up in selected localities throughout the Commonwealth, and through over 500 part-time employment agencies appointed in smaller country centres where a full-time office is not justified. Special efforts have been made to try to retain the pre-war and wartime staff of the State employment offices so that their knowledge and experience will not be lost to the new Commonwealth Employment Service. The facilities of the Service include special arrangements for the placement of technical and professional workers, ex-service personnel and disabled persons, and it is planned to establish committees of advice to assist the Minister of Labour and the State officers in administering the employment service. The expenses of the Service

are met entirely by the Commonwealth Government. In June 1946, the total staff of the Service numbered 1,907, of whom 749 were females and 914 returned service personnel.

General Functions

The duties of the new Commonwealth Employment Service are quite separate and different from those of the manpower machinery which it replaces. It is an entirely new service and is designed for specific purposes. As outlined in section 48 of the Re-establishment and Employment Act, 1945, the functions of the Service will be to provide services and facilities in relation to employment for the benefit of persons seeking to become employed, to change employment or to engage labour, to provide facilities to assist in bringing about and maintaining a high and stable level of employment throughout the Commonwealth and, in particular:

(a) to provide facilities to assist in the re-employment of discharged members of the forces, including facilities relating to the operation of other specified parts of the Act;

(b) to provide facilities to assist in the re-establishment of civilians who have been engaged in war work;

(c) to aid any person who has been trained to become employed in the manner best suited to his training, experience, abilities and qualifications;

(d) to provide means whereby any person whose name is entered in the Register of Disabled Persons (referred to in the Act) may obtain employment;

(e) to afford occupational advice, vocational guidance and other services to facilitate the engagement in employment and continued employment of persons in the manner best suited to their experience, abilities and qualifications;

(f) to provide means whereby any person in receipt of unemployment benefit under the Unemployment and Sickness Benefits Act, 1944, or of a re-employment allowance under this Act, may obtain employment; and

(g) to provide such advice and information services, and such other facilities in relation to employment or to matters connected with employment, as the Minister determines.

The Service is also designed to provide assistance in increasing the geographical mobility of labour. For this purpose, a clearing house system will operate in each of the State capital cities, linking each district office in the State with the State clearing house in order to facilitate the matching of workers with available employment opportunities and, generally, the transfer of workers where this is desirable; and interstate clearing-house arrangements will operate, as necessary, through the Central Commonwealth Office. Particular importance is attached to the dissemination by the Employment Service of information concerning labour supply and requirements and employment trends and opportunities in each area, in each State, and in the country as a whole.

In performing its functions, the Employment Service of the Commonwealth will work with the relevant State Government departments and other public or private bodies (*e.g.*, those concerned with the location of industry, public works, housing, social amenities and similar measures) whose activities affect the employment situation.

Use of the Service

The facilities of the Commonwealth Employment Service are to be used on a purely voluntary basis, and special efforts have been made to enlist the full co-operation of employers and workers. Although certain employers' groups opposed the initial establishment of a Commonwealth service, saying that the State services were sufficient, they have adopted a co-operative attitude so long as there is "no compulsion as to notification of jobs; no compulsion as to employment; no compulsion as to any person taking any job and no compulsion as to any employer employing any person he chooses". The Minister of Labour has assured them that no compulsion of these sorts is intended. Under the Re-establishment and Employment Act, 1945, the Employment Service is to provide means whereby a person receiving unemployment benefit may find employment. Thus, it is likely that persons seeking benefit under the Unemployment and Sickness Benefits Act, 1944, would be required to register with the Service, and those refusing employment which the Service considers suitable would be deemed voluntarily unemployed and therefore not entitled to receive unemployment compensation, since claimants must prove that they have taken reasonable steps to gain employment which the Director-General of Social Services deems suitable for them.

In the six months ending 31 April 1946, 243,000 persons were sent to employers by the Service (not then formally opened), of whom 193,000 were engaged. Placements during May 1946 totalled 14,584 males and 3,836 females.

Selected Official References

Commonwealth of Australia, Parliament: *Full Employment in Australia* (by Command, 30 May 1945, No. 11).

Regulations: National Security (Man-Power). 31 January 1942 (*Statutory Rules*, 1942, No. 34).

Commonwealth of Australia: *Parliamentary Debates* (House of Representatives), 22 March 1945, pp. 872 *et seq.*, and 20 July 1945, pp. 4353-4355.

Act: Re-establishment and Employment. No. 11 of 1945, assented to 28 June 1945.

Belgium

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

Public employment offices known as labour exchanges were in existence in all large Belgian cities before 1914. They received Government subsidies provided they were administered by joint boards and subject to public supervision. But the placing system was not integrated, and a series of Royal Orders, issued between 1920 and 1924, therefore provided for the unification of the employment service. The existing labour exchanges were placed under the Ministry of Industry and Labour, and supervised by it; and free employment offices established and subsidised by the Government collaborated with those set up by the local authorities to exchange information concerning the supply of and demand for labour.

Between 1934 and 1936 this system was modified by three Royal Orders establishing a National Employment and Unemployment Office subordinate to the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare. The Office was required to establish regional employment and unemployment offices and to supervise these as well as the free private employment agencies; it exercised permanent general supervision over all the unemployment funds and regulated the authorisation of the free private agencies under specified conditions. The employment service established at each regional office had to keep in touch with employers so as to be informed of and to satisfy their labour needs, and also to register all persons seeking employment, whether members of unemployment funds or not. Lastly, in 1938 the powers of the employment service were extended by a Royal Order which required the managing committee of the National Employment and Unemployment Office to determine the conditions under which unemployed workers might be accepted for reapprenticeship. The same Order also established national advisory committees at the industry or occupational level, which were to give their opinion in regard to placement in industries or occupations where this was organised on a national basis.

Various changes were introduced during the war, but not such as to alter the basic structure of the employment service. After the invasion, the National Employment and Unemployment Office was transformed into the National Employment Office by an Order of 10 April 1941; this also provided for the establishment of local employment offices wherever industrial activity so required, and of special national offices for certain industries and occupations. The service, which supervised all placing operations and transfers of labour and helped to organise vocational training and retraining and the placing of young workers, was put under the authority of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare.

After the liberation, the employment service was entirely reorganised by an Order of the Regent issued on 26 May 1945 in pursuance of the Legislative Order of 28 December 1944 concerning social security, and amended by another Order dated 26 November 1945. Ministerial Orders of 5 June, 26 June and 8 July 1945, relating respectively to the operation of fee-charging employment agen-

cies, the operation of and grant of subsidies to private employment agencies not charging fees, and the supervision of the unemployed, completed the scheme laid down by the first Order.

The Order of the Regent provides for a Provisional Fund for the maintenance of involuntarily unemployed persons, under the direct authority of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare. Its administration is in the hands of a Director-General appointed by the Crown and assisted by a board comprising 6 representatives of the trade unions and 6 representatives of employers' organisations, with an independent chairman. There are central services for general administrative purposes. Regional offices are also organised, and attached to each of these is a regional employment service and an advisory board composed of 4 representatives of trade unions and 4 representatives of employers' organisations in the region, with an independent chairman. The boards are required to give their views on the working of the respective services, to ensure that these are impartial, to promote their efficiency by securing the interest of the employers' and workers' organisations in their operation and making suggestions for their improvement, and to examine any questions submitted to them by the directors of the regional employment offices. Auxiliary employment offices may be established in other places in a region. The regional and subsidiary services are specialised by industry or occupation either in their structure or at least in their operation. Fee-charging employment agencies are prohibited, except for agricultural workers, domestic servants and persons employed in entertainment undertakings. Lastly, approval of private employment agencies not charging fees is made subject to the fulfilment of certain conditions.

General Functions

The regional employment services established at each of the Fund's regional offices, as well as the auxiliary offices, keep in active touch with employers within their area, in order to be informed of manpower needs and to help in recruitment. They collaborate closely with the services responsible for issuing allowances and for supervision, as well as with employers, employers' organisations, workers and workers' organisations, in order to find unemployed persons with the necessary qualifications and place them immediately in the vacancies which occur.

The services are open to any person desiring work. When making applications or offering employment, workers and employers must indicate the occupation in question, the degree of skill, the wages offered or required and any other particulars calculated to enable the appropriate recruitment or placing to be undertaken. In case of applicants whose qualifications are below normal, the service communicates with employers and employers' organisations in a special effort to find adequate jobs, without prejudice to the possibility of vocational retraining. They may require applicants to undergo a medical examination to ascertain their physical abilities. In order to fill offers of employment which cannot be immediately satisfied in the region, "clearing" arrangements are made daily between the ser-

vices of neighbouring regions, and at least once a week between all the regional services of the country. Lastly, the employment service collects and supplies information regularly concerning available employment and available manpower and keeps records of labour market trends and causes of unemployment.

The employment service also takes part in the vocational retraining of workers. The Provisional Fund, to which the employment offices are attached, is required to establish centres for the training of skilled workers for such industries as suffer from a shortage of the type of labour in question. Furthermore, contracts for vocational retraining may be concluded between individual workers and employers, with the approval of the employment service, which supervises the retraining process. Young unemployed persons may be required to attend classes at the vocational schools established or subsidised by the authorities.

Another function of the employment service is to facilitate the transfer of workers from one occupation to another and arrange for their vocational retraining. There are no special regulations requiring it to help in the distribution of labour within individual industries or regions, but its work automatically tends to bring about such a distribution.

The employment service also co-operates in the administration of unemployment insurance and public assistance. All unemployed persons and all persons in receipt of public assistance are registered with the service as applicants for work, provided they are fit for employment. Those who refuse a job or leave their employment without good reason are temporarily debarred from unemployment benefit and public assistance. Lastly, the services are at the disposal of the authorities and of the public for the preparation of industrial location schemes, public works, etc.

Use of the Service

Unemployed persons are not obliged to register with the employment service; but it automatically registers as applicants for work all persons fit for employment who receive unemployment benefit or assistance, who cannot refuse the work offered to them on pain of temporarily forfeiting the right to such payments. Nor is there any obligation on employers to notify the service of vacancies; the service is responsible for keeping in touch with employers in order to be informed of their labour requirements.

At present there are 25 regional offices of the Provisional Fund, and 18 private employment agencies operating free of charge. In 1936 the number of regional offices attached to the National Employment and Unemployment Office and having an employment service was 55, besides which there were 28 free private employment agencies.

The number of offers of employment received by the regional offices in 1945 was 602,229, and of placing operations effected 402,645. The free exchanges effected 5,902 placements during the period January-September 1945.

Selected Official References

- Order: Employment Exchanges. 19 February 1924.
 Order: Employment Exchanges (Amendment). 19 January 1925.
 Order: Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance. 27 July 1934.
 Order: National Employment and Unemployment Office. 27 July 1935.
 Order: National Employment and Unemployment Office (Amendment). 23 August 1935.
 Order: Employment Exchanges. 25 May 1936.
 Order: Employment Exchanges (Amendment). 25 August 1938.
 Order: Labour Market. 4 April 1941.
 Order: National Employment Office. 10 April 1941.
 Order: Unemployment Assistance. 26 May 1945.
 Order: Unemployment Assistance (Amendment). 26 November 1945.
 MINISTÈRE DU TRAVAIL ET DE LA PRÉVOYANCE SOCIALE, FONDS DE SOUTIEN DES
 CHÔMEURS INVOLONTAIRES: *Les placements effectués par l'intermédiaire
 du Fonds au cours de l'année 1945* (Brussels, 9 April 1946).

Bolivia

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

A Decree to regulate the organisation of employment offices was issued on 4 April 1945. The preamble explains that the organisation of the public employment service was called for in view of the urgent need to avoid any unemployment problems that might arise out of economic developments in the mining industry.

Under this Decree the employment offices are placed under the General Labour Inspectorate and are organised in accordance with the Conventions and Recommendations of the International Labour Organisation. They act as intermediaries between workers and employers for the purpose of paid employment, assist all persons who cannot find work and help them to find employment in the various industries and occupations. The employment offices also keep a Placement Register and endeavour to correlate the demand for and the supply of labour.

The offices are to be established in the various districts of the country. At present, the General Labour Inspectorate has employment offices in the districts of La Paz, Cochabamba, Potosí, Uncía, Villamontes and Santa Cruz, attached to the regional labour inspectorates. Each district has a joint advisory committee, composed of two employers' representatives appointed by the Chamber of Commerce and Industry, and two workers' representatives appointed by the Trade Union Federation or — failing this — by the trade unions, with the district Government officer as chairman. The committees collaborate actively with a view to promoting the rapid placement of workers.

General Functions

As stated above, the principal function of the employment offices is to co-ordinate the demand for and the supply of labour. The offices usually classify and publish all applications for employment and all announcements of vacancies made to them, and communicate to the persons concerned any information relating to their needs.

In order to carry out their duties, the offices keep three registers:

- (i) applications for employment;
- (ii) offers of employment;
- (iii) a note of particulars concerning employers who fail to respect the conditions under which they engage workers, and concerning workers similarly guilty of breach of contract.

The offices also keep a special register for salaried employees, classified, in order of registration, according to occupation, skill and other special qualifications, so that they may be placed without delay. The district authorities prepare a monthly summary of the placement operations conducted throughout their territory and send a copy to the Ministry of Labour, which is responsible for compiling statistics for the whole of the Republic. These include the following data:

- (a) number of registered workers, classified by occupation;
- (b) number of applications for employment;
- (c) number of offers of employment;
- (d) number of workers placed;
- (e) number of workers not placed;
- (f) number in each occupation.

The offices use special forms for recording data concerning the characteristics of persons seeking employment and the requirements of persons wishing to engage labour; these include all the conditions relating to the employment, including the remuneration.

Use of the Service

Mining, industrial, agricultural, road transport and other employing undertakings send their applications for labour to the employment offices, with the following particulars:

- (a) name and registration of the undertaking;
- (b) type of activity;
- (c) location and district;
- (d) number of workers, classified by occupation;
- (e) wages and salaries in force, and any other forms of remuneration;
- (f) production by month or other period;
- (g) canteen arrangements;
- (h) capacity of hospitals or first-aid posts;
- (i) capacity of camps for housing salaried employees and manual workers;

- (j) employment contract form, which must be in conformity with existing labour legislation.

Salaried employees and manual workers must provide proof of identity in order to secure free entry in the appropriate register of the employment service, and manual workers must also produce a certificate of work from their last employer. On registration, each worker receives a duplicate of his personal form, which shows his name, address, trade, service or previous workplace, wages, family situation, nationality, and the number of his identity book.

Workers are classified in groups according to their trade or occupation but most conclude individual contracts with their employers with the aid of the employment offices. Contracts must specify the following:

- (a) name of the employer or employing company;
- (b) name or personal description of the worker engaged;
- (c) type of employment;
- (d) hours of work;
- (e) rate and form of payment;
- (f) other remuneration (housing, food, fuel, etc.);
- (g) workplace;
- (h) duration of contract (fixed or indefinite period);
- (i) period of notice — if any.

Once the contract is signed the employment office has no further responsibility and the employee deals directly with the employer or employing company. The latter is required, further, to meet all the expenses of transferring the worker and his family to the workplace, pay wages from the day of engagement, and provide rations and other requirements. He must also arrange for hygienic and sufficiently comfortable housing, and provide the necessary tools and protective equipment in accordance with the relevant legislation.

The Decree also makes special arrangements for dealing with excess manpower which, it is provided, will be organised in gangs and employed on public works in accordance with national needs. For this purpose, labour districts are established and listed according to importance and immediate needs.

Selected Official References

Leyes Sociales de Bolivia, 1945, No. 3, pp. 74-81.

Bulgaria

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

The employment service and unemployment insurance in Bulgaria are based on an Act of 12 April 1925. Placement is done by

employment offices and local employment exchanges and under the supervision of the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Labour. Private employment agencies have been abolished, excepting those attached to employers' and workers' organisations. Employment offices are established by the Ministry in all centres where there are over 3,000 workers; they include sections dealing, respectively, with placement and unemployment, social insurance, and vocational training. There are 18 such offices at present. In localities where there is no office, placement is carried on by a local employment exchange or, failing this, by the municipal authorities. All these services are supervised nationally by the Department of Labour and, within each area, by the labour inspector.

The Minister of Commerce, Industry and Labour is required to appoint, at each employment office, an arbitration board composed of a magistrate, a representative of the workers and a representative of the employers. This board settles, within seven days, any dispute concerning placing, dismissal, engagement, payment of wages and conformity with works rules.

There is also, at each local employment exchange, a local labour council composed of the labour inspector, as chairman, the head of the exchange, the mayor or his deputy, a member of the district council, the local chief of technical services, the senior public health officer, a representative of the chamber of commerce and industry, three representatives of the employers and three representatives of the workers. The local labour council studies any public works projects which might be carried out in the area in case of unemployment, and any other possible action to prevent or reduce unemployment, enforce labour legislation and improve conditions of work.

General Functions

The employment service must be notified by employers within 5 days of all engagements and dismissals of personnel; and — since the war — 15 days in advance of all imminent reductions of personnel. The employment offices enter applications for employment and announcements of vacancies, in the order in which they are received, in special registers and also include them in the statement they send to the competent labour inspector.

Since 1941 the Minister of Commerce, Industry and Labour has had authority to require employers in certain classes of establishments to engage their personnel through the employment service; he may also make the engagement and dismissal of workers in these establishments subject to the previous consent of the service. Special regulations have been issued applying this rule to various industries, including coal mining, the metal trades, and textiles. The same applies to the tobacco and building industries, where in addition, each worker must hold an employment card; the employment service retains a copy of this, which enables it to follow the movements of workers in these industries and, on the basis of the occupational skill and training mentioned thereon, to direct them in case of unemployment towards other work corresponding to their qualifications.

The employment service is required to place workers — manual and non-manual — in jobs in their own occupations, as near as possible to their homes. If the job indicated is outside the area of the worker's home, the employment service pays travel expenses. Since 1945 action has been taken to ensure a more rapid and efficient balancing of supply and demand as between different regions by improving the information service in this respect: each labour inspection office is required to inform the Department of Labour if it cannot find in its own district the workers required there, indicating the name of the undertaking which needs personnel, the number of workers wanted (classified by sex and occupation), the conditions of work and the housing and transport provided, and also stating whether the undertaking is prepared to take unskilled workers (and on what terms) if there are not enough workers of the occupational group desired. Furthermore, an enquiry has recently been conducted in the principal industrial undertakings in order to determine the number of workers employed by them, the number probably needed in the future and the number liable to be dismissed. This enquiry made it possible to estimate the chances of re-employment of dismissed personnel, and thus tended towards an adequate distribution of labour. The local labour councils were required, further, to examine the possibility of placing the unemployed in fresh occupations and if necessary, of organising public relief works.

The employment service also administers the unemployment insurance scheme and pays benefit for not more than 12 weeks a year to workers involuntarily unemployed who have held jobs and paid contributions to unemployment insurance during a period of not less than 32 weeks in the two years immediately preceding the beginning of the unemployment. The qualifying period is reduced to 16 weeks in the case of persons involuntarily unemployed owing to the closing of the establishment in which they were working or owing to shortage of raw materials.

When an unemployed worker cannot obtain a job owing to insufficient training, the employment service may send him to a vocational school, or to a class, or to some appropriate plant so that he may receive the necessary training; but its duration may not then exceed the period during which he is entitled to unemployment benefit. The Vocational Training Directorate has taken steps to set up workshops at all vocational schools.

Through the arbitration boards, the employment service exerts an influence on the increase or reduction of personnel in each establishment, since the boards settle disputes between employers and works committees on this subject.

Lastly, the employment service is responsible for the placing of disabled war veterans and other handicapped persons, and for ensuring that all establishments reserve one tenth of their jobs for such persons.

Use of the Service

In specified industries (coal mining, textiles, metal working, tobacco manufacture, building) employers who desire to dismiss workers and workers who desire to leave their employment are re-

quired to obtain the previous consent of the employment service. Further, all hiring must be done through the employment office, or must be notified to it within 5 days in the case of establishments situated outside the seat of the labour inspectorate. The Minister of Commerce Industry, and Labour may extend these provisions to other industries and occupations.

Where this special scheme does not apply, an employer engaging workers is merely required to inform the employment service within 5 days of their starting work, and to notify their names and the numbers of their insurance books. The same obligation applies when he dismisses workers or they leave his employment of their own accord. Placing by means of the employment service (where all workers in search of jobs are registered) is not compulsory save for public establishments and undertakings, which may only engage workers direct if the employment offices are unable to provide them with the personnel they require.

All employers must inform the employment service at least 15 days in advance of any intended reduction in personnel, as well as of any stoppages due to shortage of raw materials. In the latter case, the worker continues to receive his wages for 45 days and, if he cannot be placed in other employment, receives an allowance from the office for 25 days, irrespective of any claim to unemployment benefit.

Selected Official References

- Act: Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance. 12 April 1925 (amended by Act of 30 April 1941).
- Ordinance: Engagement and Dismissal (Coal, Metal and Textile Industries). No. 2, 26 November 1945.
- Act: Arbitration Boards, 1946.
- Ordinance: Employment (Tobacco Industry). No. 3, 11 December 1945.
- Ordinance: Employment (Tobacco Manipulation). No. 1, 14 May 1946.
- Ordinance: Employment (Building Industry). No. 17, 16 December 1943.
- Decree of Council of Ministers. No. 14, November 1944.
- Circulars of General Labour Directorate concerning collection of data on labour demand and supply; protection of disabled war veterans; obligation of employers to notify employment service in advance of probable reductions in personnel.

Canada

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

The Employment Offices Co-ordination Act, passed in May 1918 by the Dominion Parliament, created a Dominion-Provincial Employment Service, later designated as the Employment Service of

Canada. This Service consisted of a chain of employment offices stretching across Canada and administered by the provincial Governments but co-ordinated by the Dominion Government, which granted subsidies to the provinces operating employment offices. These subsidies, amounting to \$150,000 each year, were distributed among the provinces in proportion to the expenditures of each in relation to the total expenditures of all provinces for the maintenance of employment offices.

The employment services operated on the Dominion-provincial basis until 1940, when, with the passage of the Unemployment Insurance Act, a central national employment service was set up on a Dominion-wide basis and administered by the Unemployment Insurance Commission. Seven provinces therefore signified their intention of withdrawing from the public employment service field, and in August 1941 the Commission took over the control and financing of the offices of these provinces.¹

The Employment Service of Canada, now directly responsible to the Minister of Labour, works through a headquarters in Ottawa, responsible for the general policy of the Service and for ensuring minimum uniformity in its operations and through regional offices in 5 regions (Quebec, Ontario, Maritime, Prairie and Pacific). The regional offices supervise the activities of the local employment offices in their regions and the headquarters office co-ordinates the work of the regional offices. In April 1944, there were 242 offices in the 5 regions, operating with a staff of 5,200 persons; in December 1945, the number of operating offices had fallen to about 210, but the staff had increased to 7,572 regular employees and 1,265 temporary employees.

At headquarters, a central advisory National Employment Committee has been established to assist in employment service operations. Five regional and 61 local employment service advisory committees have been set up. Each committee is representative of workers' and employers' organisations, women, veterans and agriculture. The National Committee co-ordinates the work of the regional and local committees. In August 1945, the five regional advisory committees were renamed "advisory boards, Labour Department", and their scope of activity was broadened to provide that the boards should "act in an advisory capacity to the Minister of Labour for the co-ordination of the work of the various divisions of the Department of Labour". At the headquarters of the Service in Ottawa, there is an Employment Branch, subdivided into three divisions under the direction of a Chief Employment Officer and dealing respectively with general placements, special placements and veterans' placements. These divisions are further subdivided into sections, each of which specialises in particular industrial and occupational

¹ With the opening of the Commission's employment offices in Quebec, the Government of that province worked in close collaboration with the Commission to provide employment placement facilities in the province, but it did not give up its own public service. Prince Edward Island was not operating an employment office under the Employment Service of Canada, but employment offices of the Unemployment Insurance Commission have been established in Charlottetown and Summerside.

problems.¹ A similar organisation is being established in the regional offices, and, as a rule, the larger local offices will follow the same general administrative pattern.

General Functions

Under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1940, the duties of the Employment Service are: (a) to collect information on the number and qualifications of persons seeking employment and on the jobs available through employment offices; and (b) to undertake services assigned by the Unemployment Insurance Commission in the interest of workers and employers.

The shifting phases of war demanded changes in industrial programmes, and the growing industrial war effort brought specific and general shortages of labour requiring continuous transfers of labour. The employment offices were given National Selective Service duties which entailed comprehensive control over the engagement, transfer and dismissal of labour. Most of these controls have been removed and the work of the Service is being adapted to post-war needs, its tasks being broadly conceived and relating above all to the finding of employment for its applicants. The broader experience and greater technical competence of the Service, deriving primarily from its wartime work, made this possible. Thus, ever since the end of the war, the Employment Service has expanded its operations and functions continuously and the Government intends to utilise it as an instrument of full employment policy. It has concentrated on improving the quality of its placement work and extending the range of its placements over the whole occupational and industrial field. Vocational guidance activities are being stressed, particularly for youth and other special groups of workers (*e.g.*, the disabled). In the field of training, it has established local and regional selection committees, which determine the need for training civilians and arrange for the selection and referral of suitable persons to training organisations. The Service aids in the transfer of labour from one region to another by offering financial assistance where necessary, and assists in the planning of industrial location.

In performing its functions, the Service co-operates with other branches of the Dominion Government, with the Governments of the several provinces and with the councils of municipal corporations. It also works in close touch with employers' and workers'

¹ The General Placements Division deals with the general problems of industry in regard to employment and is subdivided into four sections: (a) primary industries, (b) communications, (c) general industries, and (d) merchandising and services. The Special Placements Division is subdivided into three sections dealing with (a) the problems of handicapped persons, (b) problems of youth matters relating to vocational guidance, and (c) training. The Veterans Placement Division deals with the rehabilitation of veterans in employment and co-ordinates the activities of the Employment Service in this regard with those of the Department of Veterans Affairs and the armed services. In addition, a section has been set up to deal with women in their relation to employment; it also deals with certain occupations in which the employment of women is of predominant importance.

organisations. The National Employment Committee, the regional advisory boards and the local employment committees maintain close liaison with labour and industry organisations and joint industry committees dealing with special problems of certain industries.

Use of the Service

The Employment Service of Canada was not very fully developed or widely used in the period up to the war of 1939-1945, but war requirements and controls caused a striking expansion of the use of the facilities of the Service throughout the Dominion. One of the biggest problems before the war was the failure of employers to report vacancies. Thus, one of the main wartime provisions which the Dominion Government has retained in the peacetime service is that which requires employers to notify the Employment Service of all vacancies, engagements and separations and requires persons seeking work to register at employment offices. Employers are entirely free to select and hire whomever they please and workers are free to take the job of their choice, but workers in receipt of

TOTAL PLACEMENTS MADE BY THE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, 1936 TO 1945

Year	Number	Year	Number
1936	331,450	1942	895,621
1937	389,536	1943	1,944,026
1938	382,295	1944	1,739,917
1939	384,882	1945	1,493,581
1940	475,106	1946	
1941	507,763	(22 weeks)	328,363

EMPLOYMENT SERVICE OPERATIONS CLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRY GROUPS

Fiscal year ending March 1945

Industry	Vacancies	Placements	
		Regular	Casual
Agriculture	51,296	28,764	578
Fishing, hunting and trapping	847	575	2
Forestry and logging	267,447	162,852	91
Mining	57,377	33,034	71
Manufacturing	1,068,235	664,962	3,852
Construction	200,149	124,295	708
Public utilities operation	225,711	145,851	1,793
Trade	305,979	205,569	7,091
Finance and insurance	37,638	24,995	303
Services	488,555	292,749	29,949
Total	2,703,234	1,683,646	44,438
Men	1,767,241	1,079,313	13,964
Women	935,993	604,333	30,474

Source: UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE COMMISSION: *Report for the fiscal year ending 31 March 1945* (Ottawa, 1945), pp. 28-29.

or claiming unemployment insurance benefit must accept suitable employment when offered to them.

The preceding statistics show the operations of the employment offices during selected years.

Out of the yearly totals, the placements of women averaged about one third. Also out of these totals, placements in casual employment (7 days or less) rose from 113,500 in 1939 to 191,600 in 1941 and dropped to 47,900 in 1945.

Selected Official References

Act: Unemployment Insurance. 7 August 1940 (4 Geo. VI, chap. 44).

Order in Council: No. 2250, 21 March 1942 (*Canada Gazette*, 4 April 1942, No. 40, p. 3978).

Order in Council: No. 7595, 26 August 1942 (*Canada Gazette*, 28 August 1942 (Extra), No. 94, p. 1).

UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE COMMISSION: Reports for the fiscal years ending 31 March 1943, 1944 and 1945 (Ottawa).

Employment and Income, Report presented to Parliament by the Minister of Reconstruction, April 1945.

Chile

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

The employment service of Chile is organised under the Labour Code of 1931 and a Special Decree, No. 56 of 19 January 1943, providing for measures to combat unemployment and organise placing, and establishing the employment service as a separate National Employment Department.

Under the Labour Code, approved by Legislative Decree No. 178 of 13 May 1931, the placement service for workers was to be provided free of charge by the Government through the General Labour Directorate in accordance with special regulations to be issued by the President of the Republic. It was also provided that there would be joint committees of employers and workers to advise the Directorate in matters relating to the operation of the employment offices, and the activities of private employment agencies were regulated. In 1942, measures were taken to raise the status of the employment service. In the provinces the work of the employment service is carried out through services attached to the provincial labour inspectorates.

The Decree of 19 January 1943 established a special Committee for the Study, Prevention and Absorption of Unemployment. As its title indicates, this body is required to study the unemployment situation and to recommend action for the prevention and absorption of

unemployment, as well as to direct the placing of workers. The preamble to the Decree explains that this action was taken to counteract the unemployment then increasing in Chile owing to the repercussions of the war on the national economy. The committee, which is under the Ministry of Labour, is presided over by the Under-Secretary for Labour, and is composed of the following: the Director-General of Labour; the Director-General of Public Works, representing the Ministry of Roads and Public Works; the Director-General of Social Assistance, representing the Ministry of the Interior; the Head of the Budget Office, representing the Ministry of Finance; the Head of the Department of Social Welfare, representing the Ministry of Economic Affairs and Commerce; and a representative of the Development Corporation. The Head of the National Employment Department acts as Secretary of the Committee. Its terms of reference are to study the scope and problems of unemployment as a whole, to plan the placement of workers, and to recommend action for dealing with exceptional unemployment from which the country may suffer. The Committee's executive organ is the National Employment Department (previously the National Employment Service) of the General Labour Directorate; the Social Welfare Office of the Ministry of Labour is under its jurisdiction.

Decree No. 98 of 20 January 1945 gave approval to the regulations provided for under section 27-B of Act No. 7747 of 23 December 1943, which relates to the reduction of activity and closing of undertakings. The preamble to this Decree states that the intention of the Act and regulations in question is to prevent unemployment and to place unemployed personnel. To this end, the Decree provides that any closing of undertakings, establishments, factories or other activities must be communicated to the competent labour inspection service at least 30 days in advance. The application to reduce activity or to close down an undertaking must mention the developments of an economic, social and technical character which led up to such application, and more particularly the following:

(a) the name of the undertaking, its street address and number, and the surname, first name, and domicile of the proprietor or legal representative;

(b) the reasons for the reduction or closing down requested, and the action taken to remove or counteract them;

(c) an exact statement of the scope of the activities to be reduced or closed;

(d) the number of wage earners and salaried employees who will be affected, classified by occupation and grade, with the average wage for each group, the number of unmarried and married men, their family responsibilities; and

(e) any other particulars of which the undertaking may consider it desirable to notify the authorities with a view to avoiding or remedying unemployment.

Further the Decree states that in all cases of reduction of activity involving the dismissal of more than 10 employees, and in cases of closing down, if the General Labour Directorate is obliged

to move the personnel affected to other places of residence in order to provide them with employment, it may require the employer in question to pay the sums necessary to meet the travelling and other expenses caused by the transfer of these workers and their families living with them to the new home.

General Functions

Under the Decree of 19 January 1943 the National Employment Department has the following functions:

(a) to control the opening or reopening and the permanent or temporary reduction or closing down, of any activity involving employment;

(b) to investigate the causes of the dislocation in employment, in order to suggest the most appropriate action;

(c) to study possibilities of intensifying employment, altering work timetables or organising new shifts in order to avoid unemployment or to facilitate the reabsorption of unemployed persons in official, semi-official, municipal or private undertakings and establishments, and to make recommendations with these objects in view;

(d) to supervise the conclusion and operation of contracts of employment in conformity with legislative provisions on this subject;

(e) to register, classify and compile statistics concerning unemployment among wage earners, salaried employees and domestic servants, and to arrange for the re-employment of these groups of persons;

(f) to operate a permanent scheme for testing the skill, capacity and willingness for work of all persons voluntarily or involuntarily unemployed, in order to collaborate with the Director-General of Social Assistance in classifying the relief allowances to be provided by the latter; and

(g) to organise and supervise the activities of the employment services attached to the Labour Inspectorate, the trade union employment exchanges and of the private agencies or offices specially authorised by the General Labour Directorate in accordance with existing laws and regulations.

Further, the public services and other bodies whose activity is affected by unemployment or is connected with the development of production are requested to give facilities to the National Employment Department and to provide it with all the information it may request.

Use of the Service

The use of the employment service by employers seeking workers and by workers seeking jobs is voluntary for the most part. However, unemployed persons seeking public assistance are required to register for employment with a public employment office or officer, and vacancies in public works and in Government departments and agencies must be filled through the service.

The following figures indicate the volume of the work of the service during 1942, 1943 and 1944. In 1943, there was an increase of 20 per cent. in registrations for employment, 26 per cent. in placements and 18 per cent. in unemployment. Average unemploy-

ment for 1943 showed an increase of 48 per cent. over 1942. The further increase in 1944 was only 18 per cent. of the 1943 figure. In 1944 the employment service found work for a total of 13,142 persons (5,473 wage earners, 6,582 salaried employees and 1,087 domestic servants). The following table shows the monthly averages for each of these three years:

Monthly average	1942	1943	1944
Registered	2,523	3,619	4,356
Placed	665	867	1,095
Unemployed	1,858	2,752	3,261

Classified by occupation, the placements of wage earners in 1944 were as follows:

Occupational group	Number
Mining	506
Irrigation and forestry	2
Stockraising	1
Agriculture	305
Food	71
Beverages and spirits	21
Tobacco	1
Textiles	258
Chemicals	28
Metal working	366
Transport	122
Earth and stone	5
Electrical and electro-technical	77
Manufacture of animal products	34
Manufacture of vegetable products	78
Industries related to letters, arts and science	31
Building and construction	563
Other manufacturing	230
Banking, insurance, etc.	30
Other commerce	2,735

Selected Official References

- Legislative Decree: No. 178, to ratify the Labour Code. 13 May 1931 (*Diario Oficial*, 28 May 1931 and 6 July 1931).
- Decree: No. 56. Prevention and Absorption of Unemployment. 19 January 1943.
- Decree: No. 12/5245, Regulations of General Social Assistance Directorate. 21 September 1942.
- Decree: No. 98 of the General Labour Directorate, Reduction of Work and Stoppage of Undertakings (*Diario Oficial*, 10 February 1945, p. 4).
- Alberto RUIZ DE CAMBOA and Juan DÍAZ SALAS: *Código del Trabajo* (Santiago de Chile, Editorial Nacimiento, 1942), Vol. I, Chapter X, Articles 86 and 87, p. 65.

China

The Ministry of Social Affairs of the National Government of China has been taking a keen interest in the development of public employment service facilities not only as a method of facilitating the solution of current manpower problems but also as a means of promoting national industrial development.

On 11 August 1943, the Minister took action to regulate the placement services conducted by farmers' unions, trade unions, chambers of commerce and other recognised trade associations. The regulations, which were provisional in character, required all such employment agencies to submit information concerning their location and activities, to deal with both skilled and unskilled labour, to enquire into the manpower situation, to regulate the demand for and supply of skilled workers and to provide vocational guidance and training facilities. A placement fee was allowed but limited to an amount equal to one half of the first month's wages or salary of the applicant, shared equally by the worker and employer.

In July 1944, steps were taken to build up a public employment service. The Minister of Social Affairs reorganised the Employment Service Section of the Chungking Social Service Centre into the present Chungking Employment Service under the direct control of the Ministry of Social Affairs. Because of financial, personnel and other practical difficulties, it has not been possible to extend the Service beyond the Chungking area to any great extent, though employment offices under the Ministry have been set up in several other localities. Later, it is proposed to expand the Service considerably, especially after the present organisation has functioned for some time, and enough experience has been obtained to point the way for adaptation of employment service work to the national conditions and local situations in which it must be carried forward.

The Chungking Employment Service has one director, two sub-directors, three chiefs of section responsible for the sections of administration, employment, and vocational guidance, and a staff of 6 to 9 experts with 9 to 12 assistants. A consultative committee is to be set up to aid the development of the work of the employment office.

To facilitate its employment work, the Service has published a weekly bulletin called *The Employment Service News* since the spring of 1945. This bulletin is distributed to all employers, and in addition, the Service sends qualified persons to make contact with the factories in the vicinity of Chungking so as to provide more employment opportunities for the unemployed workers who are so numerous in the metropolitan area.

Employment opportunities are few and the number of those seeking employment has been swollen by the rising number of refugees (for whose placement the Service accepts responsibility) and students who have found it necessary to take up remunerative employment. The Service has decided to make extensive enquiries into the labour requirements of employers and public undertakings with a view to adjusting supply and demand more effectively. It is also planning to set up special training courses to raise the level of competence of its technical personnel.

The use of the Service in Chungking has grown as its functions have been made known to the public and as closer contacts have been developed with the larger employers. Each month, more employers and employees are making use of the Service. Before re-organisation, the number of applicants was small. In the first half of 1944, the total number of applicants for jobs was 3,182, and that of applicants for suitable workers 168; only 108 persons were placed in employment. In the second half of 1944, the number of applicants for jobs rose to 5,888, and that of applicants for workers to 2,630; 483 persons were placed in employment. In the month of March 1945 alone, the number of applicants for jobs was 1,455, and that of applicants for workers 397; placements totalled 66.

Selected Official References

Provisional measure: Establishment of Private Employment Offices. 11 August 1943.

Czechoslovakia

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

A Government Order of 4 June 1945 has established two provincial employment offices for Bohemia and Moravia in Prague and Brno. District employment offices have been created in every district, and the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare may establish branch offices where necessary. Both regional and district offices are under the control of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, who appoints their directors, after consulting the Central Council of Trade Unions and, in the case of the provincial employment offices, the national committee for the province. The director of each employment office must follow instructions given by his administrative board, which is composed of representatives of the workers and of experts in the field of economics or social service. All members of the boards are appointed by the provincial national committees, in agreement with the Council of Trade Unions. The staff of the district offices is appointed by the provincial employment office, that of the provincial offices by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare.

General Functions

The employment offices must administer regulations respecting employment, wage policy, labour inspection, and measures for the protection of the workers' health and welfare. They are responsible for the administration of the general labour service introduced by a Presidential Decree of 1 October 1945, under which all men from 16 to 55 and all women from 18 to 45 years of age may be called

upon to perform labour service in the national interest, with certain exceptions (see below, under the heading "Use of the Service"). In this connection, the district employment offices verify the statements of employers who apply for workers mobilised under the labour service system and declare that they have already made use of all technical and organisational measures to economise manpower in their undertakings. If it is decided that an employer is really entitled to such surplus manpower, the employment office in the district where the needed workers are recruited issues an order containing data concerning the workers, the undertaking in which they will be employed, the type of work they will have to perform, the place and date on which they are to begin work, the length of the labour service, and possibilities of appeal. So far as possible, the district employment office facilitates these transfers by enlisting the co-operation of the works councils in the undertakings concerned — that in which the workers are to be employed, and that in which they are working at the time of mobilisation. Thus its task is mainly centred in ensuring that the interests of the workers are fully protected during the transfer.

The employment service co-operates with the national committees for the enforcement of measures concerning labour mobilisation for agriculture. An Act of 16 May 1946 provides that all men from 15 to 55 and all women from 15 to 45 years of age may be directed to agricultural work. The inhabitants of all communes in Bohemia and Moravia must register with their local national committee or, if they reside at the seat of the district employment office, with this office, with certain exceptions. After the needs for surplus manpower in agriculture have been ascertained by the local national committee, in co-operation with the local committee of the Union of Czech Farmers, the district employment offices proceed to mobilise the required workers.

If urgent agricultural work requires additional manpower, the district employment offices may take the following steps: (a) so far as the public interest allows, direct to agriculture all persons who have worked in agriculture for at least six months during the last five years; (b) in co-operation with the local or district national committees, ascertain whether workers in various branches of activity are fully employed, and whether these branches are as important as agriculture to the national economy. On the basis of their findings, they must secure as fair a distribution of manpower as possible between agriculture and other branches of activity.

Persons who are called upon to perform labour service are considered to be on leave from their regular work, and their contract may be terminated only with the consent of the district employment office, which controls the conclusion and termination of all contracts of employment. However, its consent is not necessary for the conclusion of contracts in the following cases: contracts of a duration of less than 7 days; contracts of agricultural and forestry workers of a duration of less than 4 weeks; contracts of persons engaged to remove the consequences of natural catastrophes. Contracts may be terminated without the consent of the employment office in the

following circumstances: if both parties agree; if a person is employed on probation, and the contract is terminated within one month; for seasonal workers, at the end of the season; and for persons employed temporarily in agriculture or forestry. When giving its consent to the conclusion or termination of a contract, the employment office must take into account the personal situation and special qualifications of the worker concerned, and the need for manpower and the importance of the undertaking or branch of activity concerned to the national economy.

Use of the Service

All men from 16 to 55 and women from 18 to 45 years of age may be directed by the employment offices to accept work which has to be performed in the public interest, with the following exceptions: members of the armed forces on active service; persons already employed on essential work; students; apprentices; pregnant women, women who work in their household and look after at least one child of under 15 years of age; representatives of foreign Governments and their families.

Special regulations apply to manpower mobilisation for agriculture, to which all men between 15 and 55 and all women between 15 and 45 years of age are liable. The following are exempted: persons under a contract of employment covered by health insurance, and actually employed; persons working full-time in agriculture, professional workers, handicraftsmen, and persons on military or police service; students; pregnant women and persons whose health does not allow them to work; women who work in their own household and look after at least one child under 11 years of age or two members of the family who are exempted; representatives of foreign Governments and their families.

When persons are called up to perform general labour service or agricultural labour service, account must be taken by the employment service of their personal, economic and social circumstances, as well as of their previous training and occupation. In all cases, they should be in good health. Women may only be directed to work which is normally performed by women, and married persons will be mobilised only if no suitable unmarried persons can be found. Persons who are unemployed or not fully employed will be called up before those who hold regular employment. The period of mobilisation may not exceed one year for general labour service, or three months in any one year for agricultural labour service.

Selected Official References

Government Order: Provisional Organisation of Employment Offices. 4 June 1945.

Presidential Decree: General Labour Service. 1 October 1945.

Act: Mobilisation of Manpower for Agricultural Production. 16 May 1946.

Denmark

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

Public employment offices had been set up in Denmark before the war of 1914-1918, and Denmark ratified the Unemployment Convention in 1921. An Act of 1 July 1927, as amended by an Act of 9 November 1928, completely reorganised the employment service, and provided for the setting up of an office in Copenhagen and one in each county, making a total of 23. The essentials of this system were retained in the Acts relating to employment exchanges and unemployment insurance dated 20 May 1933 and 14 April 1937, which provide for State subsidy to the county employment offices and lay down certain rules for the organisation and operation of the offices and for their supervision by the Ministry of Social Affairs.

The system underwent little basic change until the outbreak of war. Its operations were necessarily affected by the occupation, but the structure of the machinery was not substantially altered, though it was centralised in some respects.

In March 1945 there were 31 free public employment offices with 6 branch offices. The offices are under the general control of a Director of Employment in the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. Each office has a governing board consisting of a chairman and two employers' and two workers' representatives. The municipal authority of the urban districts within the area covered by the office appoints one employers' and one workers' member, while the county council of the area appoints the other two. The board supervises the work of the local office and is its general policy-making and executive organisation.

General Functions

The duties of the employment offices are to perform general placement work in their areas, to collect employment market information and assist other State institutions in the collection and use of such information, to exercise supervision in connection with unemployment in conformity with the provisions of laws and regulations, and generally to promote the maintenance of employment through effective employment market organisation, including the encouragement, as necessary, of occupational and geographical mobility in the labour force and of specialised service to such groups as juveniles and the disabled. Moreover, the Act of 1942 made the employment offices responsible for the issue of work cards to all workers who are not insured against unemployment, the unemployment funds being responsible for the issue of work cards to other workers. However, the obligation to carry a work card does not apply to persons employed by the State, a commune or a State-controlled undertaking.

Use of the Service

Over the period 1 April 1944 to 31 March 1945, the public employment service received 1,379,164 applications for work and was notified of 409,878 vacancies.

Selected Official References

Act: Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance, etc. 22 December 1921.

Notification: No. 47 of the Ministry of the Interior, issuing Act No. 529 of 22 December 1921, as amended in pursuance of Act of 4 March 1924. 4 March 1924.

Act: Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance, etc. (amendment of Act No. 151 of 1 July 1927). 9 November 1928.

Notification: No. 205, to issue Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance Act of 20 May 1933. 20 May 1933.

Notification: No. 138, to promulgate Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance (Amendment) Acts No. 66 of 31 March 1937 and No. 101 of 14 April 1937. 14 April 1937.

Act: No. 135, to amend Act of 14 April 1937, as subsequently amended. 30 March 1940.

Act: No. 338, to amend and supplement the Unemployment Act. 29 July 1942.

Egypt

In 1945, initial steps were taken to set up a public employment service in Egypt. By an Order of February 1945, the Minister of Social Affairs decreed that employment offices should be created in industrial centres, namely, Cairo, Alexandria, Tanta, Mansûra, Port Said, Kena, and Assiut. The Order was made for the immediate purpose of forestalling so far as possible and overcoming unemployment among workers who had been employed by the military authorities. The Government considered it imperative to establish public machinery in every industrial centre in the country in order to help these workers to find fresh employment and to act as a link between them and other unemployed persons and industrial and commercial employers requiring their services.

The Order places the employment offices under the Labour Department of the Ministry of Social Affairs and provides for the establishment of a central employment office in this Department for the control and co-ordination of the local offices and the consideration of the applications for work or for workers which the local offices are unable to satisfy. It also defines the area of competence of each of the 7 local offices, in such manner that the operations of each one will cover the surrounding area of the industrial centre so far as possible.

Under the terms of the Order, any worker or salaried employee seeking employment in an industrial or commercial establishment may submit an application for employment to the office within whose area he resides. Any industrial or commercial employer may ask the employment office in whose area his establishment is situated to supply him with the workers or employees he requires, giving the

number desired, the nature of their work, the qualifications needed, their wage, and minimum and maximum ages. If a strike or lockout is in progress, such fact must be mentioned in writing. The employment office is required to notify the employer within three days of the names of workers or employees recommended for employment from among those registered with the office and possessing the required qualifications. The reference of such workers must be made in accordance with the chronological order of registration of the applications for employment.

Selected Official References

Ministerial Order: Creation of Employment Offices in Certain Industrial Centres. February 1945.

Finland

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

Public employment offices had been set up in Finland in several localities before World War I, and during that war their work was co-ordinated to some extent by an Order of 1917. The employment office system was revised and strengthened by an Act of 27 March 1926. This Act provided for the setting up of a communal employment office in every town of more than 5,000 persons and, if considered necessary, of a branch office or part-time agent in smaller towns, market towns and rural communities. Each local office was managed by a board of directors appointed by the communal council consisting of equal numbers of representatives of employers' and workers' organisations. In 1936, the employment service was overhauled once more, and the Employment Exchanges Act of 23 July 1936 repealed the Act of 1926 but did not fundamentally alter the existing arrangement of leaving the primary responsibility for employment service organisation to the local authorities. Under the new Act, however, half the expenses of the communal offices could be met by the central Government, provided that the offices were operated in conformity with rules and regulations determined by the Ministry of Social Affairs. This remained the basis of the system until 1941. For purposes of administration, the country was divided into 17 districts, each with a district office responsible for organising the employment service work of the region. By 1941, there were 51 communal employment offices and a large number of employment agents for the smaller and rural communities. Moreover, there were a few specialised employment offices in particular centres, dealing, respectively, with such occupational groups as seamen, forestry workers, young persons, intellectual workers, etc. The

headquarters of the service in the Ministry of Social Affairs was responsible for general policy formulation, for inspection of the district and communal offices and for ensuring conformity with the conditions laid down in the Act of 1936 to govern the grant of State subsidy for employment service purposes.

The war led to major organisational changes. The employment offices were reorganised on a centralised national basis and placed, temporarily, under the Minister of Communications and Public Works, who was responsible for manpower mobilisation. The employment offices were assigned a number of important tasks connected with the utilisation of the labour supply for military and industrial war purposes. The Order inaugurating these changes remains in force until the end of 1947, when the position of the employment services in the State administrative structure will be re-examined.

Since the end of hostilities, several minor improvements have been made in the structure of the employment service; some have aimed at developing more effective specialised facilities for such groups as young workers and white-collar workers, others at revising the general work of the service in the light of post-war conditions and functions. Collaboration with representatives of employers' and workers' organisations has been maintained; each communal office is managed by a joint board of such representatives, and, in addition, special joint committees are used for advisory purposes in particular industries and occupations, on a national and local basis.

General Functions

Before the war, the employment offices carried out general placement work, endeavouring to procure the most suitable workers for employers and the most suitable jobs for unemployed persons. Much of their work related to the relief of unemployment and the assignment of unemployed persons to relief projects. During the war, the character of their functions underwent considerable change. They became responsible for administering national service provisions and employment controls, for redistributing workers among the different areas and occupations so as to overcome war dislocations of employment and to meet the needs of the war economy. Their tasks have now reverted to more normal peacetime functions, but their sphere of competence is far larger than before and the conception of their duties remains broad. One of the major changes made since the end of hostilities in Europe has been to dissociate the work of the offices more completely from that of the relief of unemployment. At present, no employment office may be required to perform duties connected with the relief of unemployed persons other than tasks directly connected with its own primary functions of placement.

Use of the Service

Unemployed persons claiming or in receipt of unemployment benefit or allowance are required to register for work with the employment service, and certain of the wartime controls over the

engagement and dismissal of workers and their allocation to employment of national importance remain temporarily in force.

The following table gives information concerning the use of employment service facilities during the years 1940 to 1942.

EMPLOYMENT SERVICE OPERATIONS, 1940-1942

Type of agency	Number of applicants for work	Number of vacancies	Number of placements
Public employment offices and agents			
1940	151,861	141,949	95,479
1941	138,082	136,772	85,064
1942	72,732	171,374	54,324
Private agencies			
1940	28,466	29,506	19,458
1941	27,487	46,354	19,260
1942	13,582	44,768	8,036
Total			
1940	180,327	171,455	114,937
1941	165,569	183,126	104,324
1942	86,314	216,142	62,360

Source: Report to the I.L.O. of the Government of Finland on the Application of the Unemployment Convention, 1919, (No. 2).

Selected Official References

Act: Employment Exchanges. 23 July 1936.

Order: To implement above Act. 23 July 1936.

Order: Placements by Association of Hospital Nurses. 23 July 1936.

Act: Unemployment Funds Entitled to State Grant (as amended). 23 March 1934.

Order: Regional and Local Manpower Administration. 13 February 1942.

Sosialinen Aikakauskirja—Social Tidskrift (monthly review of Ministry of Social Affairs).

France

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

The first employment service regulations in France date back to 1904, but the relevant Act, which required the local authorities of every town with more than 10,000 inhabitants to establish a municipal employment office remained a dead letter, as did another Act of 1911. However, during and after the War of 1914-1918 the employment service developed. An Act of 2 February 1923 required

towns with less than 10,000 inhabitants to keep registers showing vacancies and applications for employment, and every town with more than 10,000 inhabitants to set up a municipal employment office, while the departments were to open their own employment offices and undertake recruitment and placement free of charge in localities within their boundaries.

This rather decentralised scheme was thoroughly amended shortly before the War of 1939-1945. An Act of 11 July 1938 and a Decree of 2 April 1939 placed the whole employment service under the Ministry of Labour, which was made responsible for all questions concerning the regulation and utilisation of manpower in wartime. Furthermore, a Decree of 20 March 1939 put the departmental employment offices under the direct supervision of the Ministry of Labour, and a Decree of 20 September 1939 provided that municipal employment offices and all private employment exchanges should comply with instructions to be given to them by the divisional labour and manpower inspectors. Early in 1940 another Decree established closer contact between the placing and unemployment services in order to facilitate supervision of the unemployed.

After the armistice, the departmental and municipal employment offices and the public unemployment funds were abolished by an Act of 11 October 1940 and replaced by regional labour offices for each area covered by a divisional labour inspector. The new offices were required to administer the employment service and the assistance scheme for workers without jobs. Further, a departmental office was to be established in each department, with the possibility of setting up one or more local branches. The regional and departmental offices and the local branches might be divided into occupational sections.

The employment service was again modified by an Ordinance of 3 July 1944 and a Decree of 20 August 1944. The Ordinance provided for the establishment, in each region, of a regional directorate of labour and manpower and, in each department, of a corresponding departmental directorate, all under the Commissioner for Social Affairs (now the office of the Director-General of Labour and Manpower in the Ministry of Labour). Since then the regional directorates have been abolished by a Decree of 27 April 1946, which instructed the departmental directorates to supervise the observance of laws and regulations concerning conditions of work, health and safety of workers, works committees, industrial disputes, use of manpower, placing, regrading of workers, vocational training and selection, and assistance for the unemployed. At the head of each departmental directorate is a director of labour and manpower, with — under his direct authority — inspectors of labour and manpower, specialised services covering the whole department, and the administrative services of the directorate. At each departmental directorate there is an advisory council, composed of representatives of the authorities and an equal number of representatives of trade unions and employers' organisations. Further, at each employment office (which is part of the departmental directorate) there is a joint board intended to advise the director on problems of placing

and use of manpower; these boards are composed of representatives of trade unions and employers' organisations in equal numbers.

An Ordinance of 24 May 1945 continued the process of centralising the employment service by placing the free private employment agencies under the supervision of the departmental employment service and announcing the abolition of fee-charging private employment agencies within a year from that date.

General Functions

The employment service is required to keep registers of all workers seeking employment and of all job vacancies, which must be notified to it. It is also required to supervise engagements and the termination of contracts of employment, distinguishing between two classes of establishments and occupations (see below, under "Use of the Service"). In the one class, employers must inform the employment service of any engagement or termination of contract; in the other, all such operations are subject to the service's previous consent.

The employment service also undertakes the transfer of workers and provides for their welfare in respect of transport arrangements, conditions of work and living conditions in the new area. A transferred worker may not leave his new employment without the consent of the service before at least 6 months have expired.

The employment service is also required to administer regulations concerning the reinstatement, re-employment and rehabilitation of returned prisoners, deportees and mobilised persons. It may require beneficiaries covered by these regulations to attend a vocational training or retraining centre if this appears necessary in order that work may be found for them.

Use of the Service

Every worker desiring employment must register at the departmental employment office (manpower service) or its local office or representative, and the offices must also be kept informed of all vacancies. Nevertheless, direct engagement without recourse to the employment office is still permissible and there is no obligation on the employer to engage a worker recommended by the employment office or on the worker to accept a job so offered; but the reason for refusal must be communicated to the service. The advertising of vacancies or of applications for employment by public poster is prohibited, except for domestic service. Advertisements in the press are however permitted, subject to previous authorisation from the central services of the Ministry of Labour for insertion in the regional or local press. In all cases, vacancies and applications for employment must be recorded at the departmental employment office.

In Government and other public offices, the offices of trade organisations and non-commercial institutions and associations of all sorts, as well as in professional employment, the employer is required to inform the employment office of any engagement or termination

of contract. In industrial and commercial establishments, including handicrafts, engagements and terminations of contracts are subject to previous authorisation by the employment office. In case of dismissal, the employer must state the reasons. The same applies to the employee in case of cancellation of contract; he must also state the new job or activity which he intends to take up, and send a copy of this statement to the employer. The employment office will communicate its reply within 7 days, failing which the authorisation may be considered as granted. The period is reduced to 3 days in case of the engagement of an unemployed worker or the dismissal of a worker for serious misconduct. If the reason given for cancellation of a contract is physical incapacity, the service may make its decision depend on the result of a medical examination carried out by a doctor under oath. Appeal against the refusal of a departmental employment office to authorise cancellation of a contract may be taken to the departmental director of labour and manpower within three days of its notification. The director is the final authority and decides after consulting an advisory board composed of two representatives of the employers, two representatives of the workers and four substitute members similarly chosen.

In 1938 there were 90 departmental and 1,166 municipal employment offices, 687 of the latter being directly responsible to the departmental offices. Further, 88 of the departmental offices had appointed about 20,000 local representatives. The number of placing operations carried out in 1937 was 920,009. In December 1945 the number of unfilled applications for employment registered with the manpower services was 67,827.

Selected Official References

- Act: Employment Exchanges. 2 February 1925.
- Act: Labour Code, Book I, Amendments to sections 79, 81, 82, 83, 88, 102. 19 July 1928.
- Act: Emergency Preparations (Requisitioning of Labour). 11 July 1938.
- Decree: Engagement of Employees. 21 April 1939.
- Decree: Engagement of Labour. 26 September 1939.
- Decree: Utilisation of Labour. 15 September 1939.
- Decree: Employment Exchanges, etc. 5 April 1940.
- Act: Employment Exchanges. 11 October 1940.
- Ordinance: Manpower Services. 3 July 1944.
- Decree: Labour and Manpower Councils. 26 August 1944.
- Ordinance: Placing of Workers. 24 May 1945.
- Decree (issued under above): Engagement and Dismissal of Workers. 23 August 1945.
- Order: Engagement and Dismissal (Scope of Regulations). 6 October 1945.
- Decree: Directorate-General of Labour and Manpower. 3 January 1946.
- Decree: Local Labour and Manpower Services. 27 April 1946.

Germany

PRE-WAR AND WARTIME ORGANISATION

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

A Federal Employment Board, responsible for supervising public and private employment exchanges, publishing information on the employment market and administering measures to combat unemployment, was established in Germany by an Order of 1920. These activities were centralised by an Act of 1922, providing for the establishment of public employment offices, in the administration of which the employers' and workers' organisations were to take part, as well as State offices and a Federal office. The operation of free private employment agencies was made subject to prescribed conditions, and fee-charging employment agencies were abolished altogether from 1 January 1923. In 1927 a compulsory unemployment insurance scheme was established in close co-ordination with the public employment service. A new, independent central department replaced that set up in 1922 and was required to administer placing, unemployment insurance and vocational guidance (and the placing of apprentices). This was a Federal institution, with regional and local employment offices attached to it. At all levels, the administration was organised on a joint basis with equal representation of the authorities, the employers and the workers. The employment offices were subdivided, as required, into technical sections for particular occupations, and an agricultural section and a salaried employees division were set up at the central office. In 1935 the latter was given sole responsibility for placing and for vocational guidance (and the placing of apprentices), and institutions not attached to it had to cease their activity in this field, even if not conducted with a view to profit. An exception was made, however, for artists and employees in the entertainments industry.

The Federal Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance, which had been placed under the supervision of the Minister of Labour by the Act of 1927, was in 1935 included in the Manpower and Labour Statistics Division of the same Ministry. The division was subsequently detached from the Ministry of Labour and placed under the Commissioner for the Utilisation of Manpower, who himself was dependent on the Commissioner for the Four-Year Economic Plan.

General Functions

From the beginning of the National-Socialist régime, the functions of the employment service were extended so that it might carry out the new policy of allocating manpower according to the needs of the State. In 1934 it was authorised to prohibit the engagement of workers from other areas in areas affected by unemployment, and also to prevent agricultural workers from changing their occupation.

In 1935 the employment offices were required to issue work books to certain groups of persons specified by the Minister of Labour. Later the obligation to have such books was gradually extended to all workers. The duty of the offices included the preparation of the books themselves and of forms specifying the occupational qualifications of each worker. These, properly filed, enabled the employment service to obtain a more rational distribution of workers throughout industry from the standpoint of the Nazi economy.

The employment service had later to organise the compulsory labour scheme and to requisition labour. It paid subsistence and other allowances to requisitioned workers and provided the different branches of the national economy with the manpower needed. From 1943 it was also required to register men between 16 and 65 years of age and women between 17 and 45 years for national defence work.

The employment service had very wide powers to transfer labour from one district to another and between the different regions of the country. In the case of unemployed persons who could not find work near home, the cost of the move was advanced to them by the service. In the case of workers liable for compulsory labour, these costs were borne by the future employer, but the employment service paid the workers a transfer allowance.

After 1939 all engagements and all terminations of contract — with a few exceptions — were subject to previous authorisation by the employment service, which had also to register all workers leaving their jobs. Furthermore, it noted the labour needs of all undertakings of any military importance; and when a worker became liable for military service, the form filled out from his employment book served as a means of ensuring that he could be replaced in his job.

In order to make good the shortage of labour, the employment service also undertook the vocational guidance of young workers. From 1938, but particularly after 1940, it issued instructions intended to direct the young workers available towards specified trades in accordance with national economic requirements. It also organised the vocational training of workers for skilled employments.

The allocation of prisoners of war, too, was placed in the hands of the employment service, which allotted them to trades where the shortage of labour was particularly severe (agriculture, mining, peat-cutting, railway maintenance work, etc.).

Lastly, the service had often to intervene indirectly in regard to priorities in the rationing of raw materials, the organisation of production, the closing of non-essential establishments, etc., in order to protect the position of the munitions industries. In particular, several Decrees making building permits subject to previous consent by the employment office enabled it to exert an influence on the allocation of building materials.

Use of the Service

Every employed person was bound to have a workbook issued by the employment office and containing the following data: age, sex, marital status, nationality, vocational training and skills acquired later, and all posts occupied. He could only be engaged on submission of this book, with all entries duly brought up to date by the employment office.

After 1938 all persons inhabiting German territory were liable for compulsory labour service, consisting of forced labour which could be levied by the employment service during an unlimited period for work regarded as urgent. It was, however, prescribed that as far as possible such work must suit the personal skill and knowledge of the individual required to do it. Furthermore, after 1939 inhabitants of the Reich could also be called up for special labour service in case of public emergency.

Under an Order of 1939, any employer wishing to engage workers or apprentices was first required to obtain the consent of the competent employment office; but agriculture, mining, and domestic service in households with children under 14 years were exempt from this rule. Similarly, neither the employer nor the worker or apprentice could terminate a contract of employment or apprenticeship without authorisation from the employment office, except in the following cases: if the worker was called up for military service; if the two parties had agreed to terminate the engagement¹; if the establishment had closed down; if the worker had been engaged on probation or as a stopgap; or if the worker was not covered by the unemployment insurance scheme. In these cases, except the first and last, the worker was obliged to register at the employment office immediately.

An Order issued in January 1943 required that, with some exceptions, all men aged 16 to 65 years and all women aged 17 to 45 years should register at their local employment office for the purpose of work connected with national defence. Each person registering was entitled to indicate the occupation in which he regarded himself as best qualified and to state whether he was prepared to work away from his home. Employers were required to take steps to organise their undertakings in such a way that they could employ workers on short time.

In 1941, a count covering all the regions then incorporated in Reich territory showed a total of 23 State employment offices and 463 local offices with about 1,300 branches. The employment service had about 52,000 employees (not including manual workers and apprentices). During the first half of 1941 the service placed about 5,178,000 persons, including 3,908,000 ordinary placing operations, 273,000 requisitions, 508,000 authorisations to engage personnel and 509,000 allocations of prisoners of war—an average of roughly 800,000 operations monthly. Furthermore, over 1.5 million vacancies were registered at the end of each month.

¹ A Decree of 1942 made the consent of the employment office necessary, even if the two parties were in agreement, for private establishments engaged in essential war production.

Selected Official References

- Order: Federal Employment Board. 5 May 1920.
- Act: Employment Exchanges. 22 July 1922.
- Order: Alien Workers. 2 January 1923.
- Order: Alien Workers (Amendment). 22 December 1923.
- Order: Employment Exchanges (Seamen). 8 November 1924.
- Act: Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance. 16 July 1927.
- Notification: Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance (consolidated). 12 October 1929.
- Order: Financial, Economic and Social Emergency. 26 July 1930.
- Order: Employment Agencies (Artistes). 20 October 1932.
- Act: Allocation of Employment. 15 May 1934.
- Act: Work Books. 20 February 1935.
- Act: Employment Exchanges. 5 November 1935.
- Order: Employment Exchanges. 26 November 1935.
- Decree: Emergency Service. 15 October 1938.
- Order: Compulsory Labour Service. 22 June 1938.
- Order: Restrictions on Change of Employment. 1 September 1939 (and subsequent amendments).
- Order: Mobilisation of Manpower. 27 January 1943 (and subsequent amendments).

POST-WAR ORGANISATION

MILITARY GOVERNMENT OF GERMANY: UNITED STATES ZONE

General Organisation

After the victory of the Allies, the outstanding feature of the labour market situation in Germany was a serious shortage of certain classes of workers (particularly in the building industry), together with very widespread unemployment. One of the first steps taken by the military authorities of the United States Zone was therefore to re-establish the employment service in order to take controlling action and so secure a better distribution of available labour.

The Labour Office Administration comprises local, regional and *Land* (provincial) offices, the intention being to establish a local labour office in each district. The authorities have given attention to training qualified German personnel for the operation of these offices; the Bavarian Ministry of Labour conducted a series of lectures in September 1945, which were subsequently mimeographed for distribution to all labour offices; and the presidents of the five regional labour offices in Bavaria were instructed to continue the programme of training labour office personnel at the local levels.

General Functions

The labour offices are required to register all males between the ages of 14 and 65 and all females between 16 and 45, excepting clergymen, pregnant women, women with small children and inmates of institutions. Action has been taken to prevent, as far as

possible, any failure to report. At Ulm, for instance, the labour offices collaborate closely with the rationing and housing authorities in order to discover any infringement.

The Labour Office Administration controls all placing of labour. Employers who try to attract workers by offering higher wage rates, without recourse to the local labour office, are prosecuted. The offices have wide powers to direct workers in order to make good the shortage of labour in certain occupations. In Württemberg-Baden the provincial office may make use of compulsory labour for any project which the Military Government declares to be of military importance, even if it is of a civilian character. In several regions groups of workers have been directed to woodcutting. A priorities system for the use of manpower has also been introduced; this is administered by the American authorities, who obtain the necessary labour through the offices.

The labour offices also play an important part in the "denazification" process. Regulation No. 1 issued under Act No. 8 required them to obtain from each business enterprise by 20 October 1945 a list of employees, "except ordinary labourers", retained or removed, together with a statement of their Nazi affiliations, if any; and thereafter similar reports were to be filed monthly with the labour offices covering personnel hired during the previous month.

In several cases the labour offices have organised training programmes and apprenticeship schemes, principally to meet the general shortage of building trade workers, as in Hesse-Nassau, where unemployment funds are being used to subsidise a school for such workers, and at Bremen, Göppingen, Mannheim and Wiesbaden. At Karlsruhe the labour office has conducted a publicity programme to make work in the building trades attractive. In the American Zone of Berlin the labour offices actively encourage the organisation of training schemes.

The labour offices have also played an active part in the reception of Germans expelled from Czechoslovakia and Hungary. In Bavaria the Ministry of Labour has established 15 camps for these persons, where representatives of the labour offices register and classify them according to occupational skills. Thence, insofar as housing is available, they are directed to the various parts of the Zone to meet shortages of labour in certain occupations.

A few of the labour offices have undertaken special training programmes for disabled or handicapped workers. Moreover, they ensure that 2 per cent. of the jobs in each establishment are reserved for disabled persons, under an old Act which is still in force.

Use of the Service

As noted above, all males between 14 and 65 years of age and all females between 16 and 45 must register with the competent labour office, excepting clergymen, pregnant women, women with small children and inmates of institutions.

The following tables show the numbers of persons registered, the number of unemployed, the number of placements carried out

by the offices, and the job openings in the various regions notified to them, at 31 January 1946 (except the Berlin District and the Bremen Enclave):

ACTIVITIES OF LABOUR OFFICES IN U. S. ZONE

January 1946

Area surveyed	Registration			Unemployment		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
U. S. Zone. . . .	3,253,425	2,606,546	5,859,971	373,334	571,856	945,190
Bavaria	1,697,864	1,466,648	3,164,512	186,913	270,167	457,080
Franconia. . . .	652,007	548,777	1,200,784	94,633	140,743	235,376
Upper Bava- ria; Swabia..	668,964	574,789	1,243,753	51,091	96,690	147,781
Lower Bava- ria; Upper Palatinate..	376,893	343,082	719,975	41,189	32,734	73,923
Greater Hesse.	762,058	576,060	1,338,118	82,518	124,777	207,295
Württemberg- Baden.	793,503	563,838	1,357,341	103,903	176,912	280,815

Area surveyed	Placements during the month			Job openings		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
U. S. Zone.	84,726	39,675	124,401	164,016	65,230	229,246
Bavaria.	36,374	19,463	55,837	88,179	38,391	126,570
Franconia.	15,081	7,444	22,525	26,263	9,590	35,853
Upper Bavaria; Swabia.	14,670	8,814	23,484	50,958	21,653	72,611
Lower Bavaria; Upper Palatinate	6,623	3,205	9,828	10,958	7,148	18,106
Greater Hesse. . . .	24,891	10,041	34,932	38,328	13,767	52,095
Württemberg- Baden.	23,461	10,171	33,632	37,509	13,072	50,581

Selected Official References

MILITARY GOVERNMENT OF GERMANY (U. S. ZONE): *Manpower, Trade Unions and Working Conditions*; Monthly Reports of Military Governor.

Great Britain

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

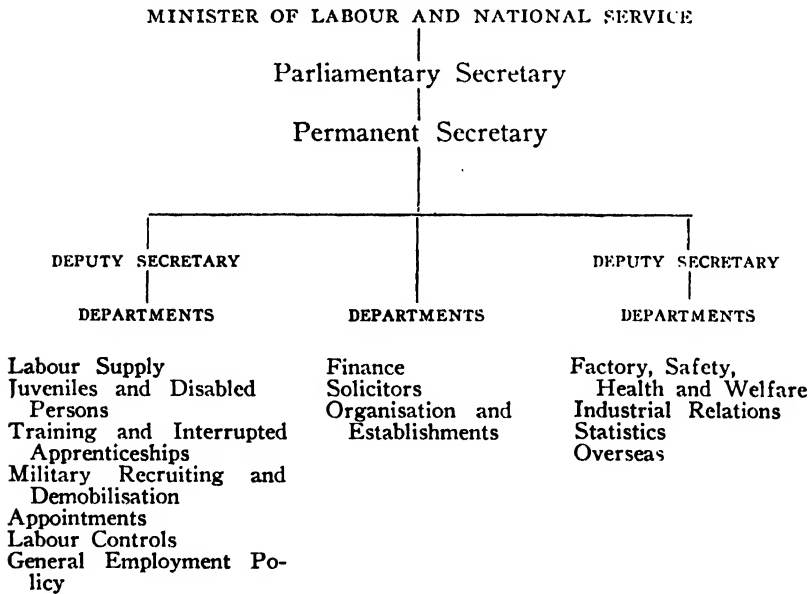
The Labour Exchanges Act of 1909 required the Board of Trade to establish a national system of employment exchanges. The Board was empowered to help labour exchanges maintained by other authorities or to take them over by agreement. The Ministry of Labour (Transfer of Powers) Order of 1917 gave the Ministry of Labour jurisdiction over the employment exchanges. The exchanges were organised in territorial divisions (now known as regions). Each divisional area was supervised by a controller, who was responsible for the executive control of the employment exchange and branch office work in the area, subject to general directions from headquarters.

In September 1939, the Minister of Labour became the Minister of Labour and National Service, and his powers were broadened to meet wartime emergency needs. It became his duty to ensure that the nation's manpower was properly distributed between the armed forces, the civil defence services and essential industries. The employment exchanges were the main instrument for mobilising and distributing manpower according to changing wartime military and production requirements.

The employment exchange service is now a decentralised organisation under the Ministry of Labour and National Service. The central headquarters of the Ministry controls a network of offices covering Great Britain but not Northern Ireland (which has a Department of its own)¹ nor the Isle of Man. The country is divided into 11 regions, whose boundaries conform in the main to the standard regional boundaries laid down for all Government departments (with certain exceptions) by the Treasury. The eleven regional controllers are responsible for the control of all the exchanges in their regions, and within these areas there are, in addition to the regional office, district manpower offices, appointments offices, employment exchanges, employment offices, branch employment offices and local agencies. In 1946, there were 1,405 local offices, 536 of which were classified as employment exchanges, 483 as employment offices, 181 as branch employment offices and 205 as local agencies. There were also 35 district manpower offices, established towards the end of 1941 to give decisions on applications for deferment of military service; they survey the man and woman-power resources of their districts and control labour supply within them so as to ensure the most efficient use and distribution of manpower. Their work is closely co-ordinated with the placement activities of the employment exchanges.

¹ In *Northern Ireland* the legislation, as well as the methods of applying it, relating to unemployment benefits and allowances and the employment exchanges system corresponds to that obtaining in Great Britain. In September 1945, there were 65 free employment agencies comprising 28 employment exchanges, 34 paying offices and 3 local agencies. The average number of applicants during the year ending September 1945 was 17,950; the number of vacancies notified was 52,322; and the number of vacancies filled was 49,724.

In addition, there are 14 appointments offices located in London and the main provincial centres. They were established in March 1942 to fill posts of an administrative, managerial, professional or technical character which were not served through the regular employment exchange service of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. Their work was closely examined by a special Committee on Higher Appointments, and on its recommendations a permanent Appointments Department was established and the specialised work for persons in these occupational categories was made a permanent part of the country's employment service machinery. There are likewise specialised arrangements for youth placement. The central control of juvenile employment services now rests with the Ministry of Labour and National Service, but the service is administered locally under a dual system; in some areas the employment exchanges serve juveniles, in others the local education authorities



11 REGIONAL OFFICES

44 Government training centres.	35 district manpower offices.	13 regional appointments offices	536 employment exchanges 373 resettlement advice offices
		31 nursing appointments offices	
		483 employment offices	181 branch employment offices
			205 local agencies

run juvenile employment bureaux. The juvenile service is controlled centrally by a Central Juvenile Employment Executive, staffed by officers of the Ministries of Labour and Education and of the Scottish Education Department.

Finally, each employment exchange includes a disablement rehabilitation officer, responsible for facilitating the training and resettlement of disabled persons and applying the provisions of the Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, 1944.

The employment exchange service has always been financed on a national basis and the staff has been subject to central control. In 1944, the staff numbered 5,300 at headquarters and about 35,000 outside, making a total of about 40,300, including persons in the regional and district manpower offices, in the Training Department and in the local offices.

The employment service organisation of the Ministry of Labour and National Service is indicated broadly in the chart on the preceding page.

General Functions

The general function of the employment exchange service is to secure a more efficient organisation of the labour market by so assisting in the direction of the various movements of labour resulting from developments and changes in industry and from variations in the number of workpeople available for employment that workers seeking employment may be placed in touch without avoidable delay with employers who can make use of their services and that hardship caused by unemployment may be prevented as far as possible. The service not only brings together employers and workpeople within the same town or industrial area, but, by a system which links the exchanges with one another, also assists the movement of labour from one district to another so as to meet changes in the location of industry, alterations in industrial demand for different types of workpeople and heavy seasonal demands for labour in certain trades.

The employment exchanges have a variety of duties connected with the following: the periodical collection of data on employment conditions; special surveys of labour supply and demand; the reinstatement in civil employment of ex-service personnel; the re-employment of disabled persons; the placement of juveniles and technical and professional workers; the application of existing controls of employment; the provision of occupational advice and guidance to workseekers; and the general promotion of the employment policies of the Ministry in all fields and in co-operation with other Government authorities. The exchanges collaborate, for example, in applying the Government's policy concerning the distribution of industry, organising workers' welfare, meeting the particular manpower and recruitment problems of individual industries, and carrying out the training and retraining programme.

Their tasks became far more varied and numerous in wartime and have remained so during the transition to peace, despite the contraction of such of their duties as were concerned with military

mobilisation and compulsory controls over the employment and distribution of civilian manpower.

Use of the Service

In the past the facilities of the employment exchange service were used almost entirely on a voluntary basis by persons seeking work or workers. Recipients of unemployment benefit or allowance were required to be registered with an employment exchange, however, and from 1938 on, as the result of a Government decision, a contractual obligation was placed upon holders of important Government contracts to notify the employment exchanges as and when additional labour was required. Considerable attention had been given to other methods of widening the use of the facilities offered by the exchanges.¹

With the imposition of wartime employment controls, the situation was changed completely. Employers and workers in almost all industries and occupations were required to make use of the exchanges, and the exchanges were also empowered to register, call for interview and place in selected employment persons not normally in the employment market nor already in some form of employment.

OPERATIONS OF EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGES FOR SELECTED PERIODS

1 October-30 September

Year	Number		
	Applicants for employment	Vacancies notified	Vacancies filled ²
1937	1,824,924	3,084,560	2,628,443
1939-1940	1,117,990	3,230,178	2,677,901
1940-1941	493,776	4,998,509	4,032,815
1941-1943	137,811	7,595,405 ²	7,756,349
1943-1944	72,715	—	3,043,234
1944-1945	95,934	—	3,170,633

¹ Does not include vacancies in respect of persons under 18 years which were catered for by juvenile employment bureaux.

² Refers only to 1 Oct. 1941 to 3 Apr. 1943, after which the data are no longer available.

A number of the controls of employment have been retained to facilitate the transfer to peace but on the whole the use of the service is reverting to its pre-war voluntary basis. The Minister of Labour has appealed to employers and workers to continue to make

¹ See, for example, UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE COMMISSION: *Final Report*, Cmd. 4185 (London, 1932).

full use of the employment exchange facilities, however. In late 1945, for instance, he made the following statement:

While it is no longer obligatory on the majority of men and women to take their employment through the local offices of the Ministry of Labour, they will be well advised to do so. The employment exchanges, the appointments offices and the Technical and Scientific Register have available detailed information as to opportunities of employment and as to the relative importance of the various jobs from the point of view of the national interest. They can give advice both to the worker on the choice of a job and to the employer on the labour available and it is in the interest of all concerned that this service should continue to be fully used.

Selected Official References

Act: Labour Exchanges, 1909.

Order: Ministry of Labour (Transfer of Powers), 1917.

MINISTRY OF LABOUR: *Annual Reports* (for years up to and including 1939);
Ministry of Labour Gazette (monthly).

Greece

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

Employment offices acting under the direct supervision of the Minister of National Economy were introduced in Greece by a Decree of 1922. Attached to each such office was a committee composed of its director, a representative of the Chamber of Commerce and Industry and a representative of the workers' organisations; it was required to take, or propose, the action necessary for national placing and for the creation of employment. In 1932 a further Decree, which is still in force, prescribed the establishment of special services with the following functions: placing of salaried employees, wage earners and domestic servants; provision of information on the state of the employment market in Greece and abroad; and the most suitable distribution of manpower between the various districts and branches of production. With these objects, employment offices were to be established in all towns of over 20,000 inhabitants. In 1935 it was provided that the Minister of National Economy should establish such a service at the office of each labour inspector or sub-inspector, but not more than 30 throughout the country. Each of these services is administered by a board composed of representatives of the local municipal council and an equal number of representatives of employers and workers. The labour inspector or, failing him, one of the municipal councillors acts as chairman. The board's duty is to see that the service functions properly and that the relevant legislation is applied, to prepare a budget for the employment office, to submit to the Ministry of National Economy its views concerning any improvements in the working of the service, and to maintain close relations with the local organisations of employers

and workers and with undertakings in its area. Lastly, the Decree made the opening and operation of private employment exchanges dependent on previous authorisation by the Minister of National Economy; within a year of the establishment of a public employment office, the private agencies in its area must cease operations. At the national level, the employment service was placed under the supervision of the Labour and Migration Section of the Directorate of Labour and Social Welfare in the Ministry of National Economy. A placing scheme for seamen, similarly organised but distinct and under the supervision of the Under-Secretary for the Merchant Navy, was established by an Act of 1936.

General Functions

The employment offices are required to register persons seeking employment or wishing to engage personnel, as well as to list the industries and undertakings operating in the area, to collect information on the state of the employment market, to publish tables showing the number and qualifications of the unemployed and the vacancies in the area, to send periodical reports on this subject and on the state of the labour market to the Minister of National Economy, and to move unemployed persons from their own area to others where labour is required.

An Act of 13 February 1945, which established an Unemployment Insurance Fund, provides that the employment offices shall co-operate with the new Fund. It also places all engagements of personnel under the control of the offices, provided that at least 50 per cent. of the persons so placed are unemployed persons in receipt of benefit from the Fund. Five days after notifying the employment office of his need for additional personnel, an employer is entitled to engage workers himself, but he must keep the office informed of his action. He must also notify the Unemployment Insurance Fund or an employment office when he dismisses a worker. The Fund is required to send a list of all registered unemployed, daily, to the employment offices, which in turn send to the Fund a daily list of the unemployed to whom jobs have been offered.

The employment offices are required to carry on placing operations free of charge and with complete impartiality. As a rule workers are placed in order of registration; but, among 12 persons successively registered, the office may attempt to give priority either to those most suited to the jobs offered by reason of clear occupational or physical advantages, or to those who are in the most critical financial position because of their personal or family situation or because they have been unemployed longer than other persons registered. However, though priority within a block of 12 may be given for the reasons stated, no employment may be provided for those lower down on the list until all the 12 applications have been satisfied. Requests by employers are met in the order of registration at the office.

The Labour and Migration Section of the Directorate of Labour and Social Welfare in the Ministry of National Economy, which is responsible for supervising the employment service, has the following functions: to supervise the enforcement of employment legislation;

to supplement the work of the employment offices; to study and recommend measures for the more efficient organisation of the employment market; to study, recommend and take action calculated to combat or reduce unemployment; to facilitate migration; and to prepare, for publication by the State Statistical Department, monthly and annual statistical tables showing the situation as regards unemployment and migration for the whole country and its various parts.

Use of the Employment Service

All undertakings, including those operated by the Government, must apply to the employment office of the appropriate area in order to engage personnel. If, however, the office cannot satisfy an application within 5 days of its being made, the employer may engage personnel without using its services; but he must inform the office of his action. The employer must also inform the Unemployment Insurance Fund, or an employment office, within 3 days, of any dismissal of personnel. Fifty per cent. of the persons placed by the office must be unemployed in receipt of benefit from the Unemployment Insurance Fund.

An unemployed person who refuses a job suited to his education, vocational training, physical condition and family responsibilities loses his right to unemployment benefit.

Selected Official References

Royal Decree: Employment Offices. 22 September 1922.

Decree: Employment Offices (Consolidating Act No. 5288 and section 1 of Act No. 5598). 8 October 1932.

Act: Employment Offices (Amendment). 10 June 1935.

Act: No. 192, Employment Offices (Seamen). 30 September 1936.

Act: No. 118, Unemployment Insurance. 13 February 1945.

Hungary

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

In Hungary there have been two distinct employment services for many years—one for industry and one for agriculture. The placement of agricultural workers was in the hands of a centralised authority, the National Employment Office of the Ministry of Agriculture, while the placement of industrial workers was administered by a national agency in Budapest and by the various municipalities outside the capital, besides which there were several employment offices organised by trade unions, employers' organisations and welfare groups. Several unsuccessful attempts were made, particularly during the war, to unify this system on a central national basis. However, an Order in Council (No. 1350/1944) of 5 April 1944

declared that "placement is a national task" and that a national employment service was therefore needed. The Order reorganised placement in industry on a centralised basis, under the authority of the Minister of Industry, provided for the replacement of municipal employment offices by branches of the national agency (as soon as the latter could be established), abolished private profit-making and non-profit-making employment agencies (except those for domestic servants) and laid down various rules for the administration of the employment service.

Since the war further reorganisation has taken place. An Order of 15 August 1945 (No. 6490/1945) transfers the organisation of placement in industry to the trade unions, which will operate employment offices under the general supervision of the Minister of Industry. Another (No. 3530/1946) extends the application of the first to intellectual as well as industrial workers. Yet another (No. 48400/1946) regulates the activities of the employment service as set up by the two previous Orders.

A similar change was made in the agricultural employment service. An Order of 25 October 1945 (No. 10080/1945) transfers the administration of this service to the National Alliance of Agricultural Workers and Small Landowners, subject to the general supervision of the Minister of Agriculture. While it was not considered possible to move towards a general unification of the employment service, it is expected that the two systems of placement will be greatly strengthened by the transfer of authority to the trade unions.

Placement of Industrial and Intellectual Workers

Under the new scheme, separate employment offices for each occupation must be established by the trade unions in Budapest and in the larger industrial centres. In the other towns, one employment office will be set up to carry on placement work for all occupations, and branch offices will be set up in the smaller municipalities. The placement of apprentices is given special attention. It will be handled by special sections of the employment offices or branch offices, in Budapest and environs under the control of the Council of Trade Unions, and in other localities by a separate section of the employment office or branch office. Expenses arising out of the employment service work of the trade unions are borne on the budget estimates of the Ministry of Industry, which is responsible for inspecting the trade union employment offices and for laying down general rules governing the utilisation of the labour force. The employment offices are bound to comply with these instructions.

Each trade union and the Council of Trade Unions must prepare regulations covering the organisation and administration of its employment service work. These regulations are subject to the approval of the Minister of Industry. The Council of Trade Unions is generally responsible for the adjustment of labour supply and demand. It must, moreover, prepare an annual budget for its placement activities within the first three months of the fiscal year, and submit this to the Minister of Industry. Each employment office must transmit regular reports on its operations to the Ministry.

Every employment office is to be assisted by an advisory committee, composed of equal numbers of employers and workers, and with an independent chairman. These committees supervise the placement activities of the offices, suggest improvements in the functioning of the service, and settle disputes arising out of its work.

The employment offices of the trade unions must operate a free placement service and may not discriminate against non-union workers or employers. It is provided that, with a few exceptions (certain categories of public employees, persons employed in positions not covered by collective agreements, and those in managerial posts), no employer may engage a worker except through the employment service, and in consequence the employment offices have an almost complete monopoly of the local employment market. If, however, no worker can be found for the employer within 3 days, or, in the case of an intellectual worker, within 7 days, the employment office must give the employer a permit allowing him to find the desired worker by his own efforts. Moreover, within 3 days, it must notify the Council of Trade Unions of all unsatisfied applications for and offers of employment.

If an employer has in view a particular person to fill a vacancy, he may ask the employment office to act merely as an intermediary between that person and himself, and the employment office must allow him to engage that person, unless the proposed engagement would be contrary to the law or to the interests of the worker. The employment office must fill vacancies and place unemployed persons in chronological order of registration, but must see to it that the qualifications of the worker match the requirements of the job. However, the Minister of Industry may order that the chronological order shall be disregarded in connection with urgent reconstruction work.

All workers in search of jobs must register with a local employment office. If no work can be found for an unemployed person near his home, he may be placed in another district, but as near to his place of residence as possible. To every worker placed in employment, the employment office gives an employment sheet, with which the worker has to go to his employer within 3 days. The employer then signs the sheet and returns it to the employment office within 48 hours. Upon termination of the contract, the employer must notify the employment office within 3 days. He must also do so when he engages a person for a managerial post.

Placement of Agricultural Workers

Under the new Order of 25 October 1945, the National Alliance of Agricultural Workers and Small Landowners is now responsible for the placement of workers in agriculture, forestry, cattle-raising, horticulture, viticulture, fruit-growing, sericulture, bee-keeping, and other work connected therewith. Local and regional employment offices are to be established. If the agricultural employment market is of little importance, it may be served by one employment office for several localities. A National Inspectorate of Agricultural Labour

(formerly the National Employment Office of the Ministry of Agriculture) and regional agricultural inspectorates supervise the work of the employment offices. Moreover, special committees, composed of equal numbers of employers and workers, and of a chairman and vice-chairman appointed by the regional and national chambers of agriculture, are set up at the national and regional levels to control agricultural placement activities. The expenses of agricultural employment service work are borne on the budget estimates of the Ministry of Agriculture, and the Alliance must prepare an annual budget to be submitted to the central committee in Budapest within the first three months of every year. The central committee forwards the budget with its comments to the Minister of Agriculture.

The employment offices effect all placements free of charge and without discrimination against non-union workers. As in the case of industry, no employer may engage a worker except through the employment service, but if no worker can be found for the employer within 3 days, the employment office must give the employer a permit allowing him to find the desired worker through his own efforts. No agricultural worker may be employed as unskilled labour in industry, mining or commerce, except with the consent of the National Inspectorate of Agricultural Labour, and the employment offices are responsible for enforcing this provision.

Every employment office must keep a systematic register of all agricultural workers in its area and note any changes of employment; for this purpose, it is given access to the registers of other public authorities. It may also collect statistical data on the internal migration of workers, such as the number of workers from its district who are engaged to work in other localities, and the number of workers from other localities who are employed in its own district.

The Alliance establishes rules of procedure in respect of placement in co-operation with the employment offices for industry. These rules are subject to the Minister's approval, and the Alliance must comply with all the Minister's legal instructions.

The National Inspectorate of Agricultural Labour receives a complete list of all employment offices from the Alliance and generally supervises all employment service work. It is responsible for preparing plans for adjusting labour supply and demand in the whole country and for submitting monthly reports on employment conditions and annual reports on placement activities to the Minister of Agriculture. The regional agricultural inspectorates have similar tasks on the regional level. The local employment offices send them monthly reports, in prescribed form, on employment conditions in their respective areas, and annual reports on their own activities. On the basis of these, the inspectorates in turn prepare monthly reports on the employment situation and the progress of agricultural work, and annual reports on the work of the employment offices, which are forwarded to the National Inspectorate.

A Central Agricultural Placement Committee works in close co-operation with the National Inspectorate of Agricultural Labour (all its administrative work is done through the Inspectorate), and

meets in March, July and October. It is responsible for controlling the activities of the National Alliance in respect of employment service, discussing the suggestions and proposals of the regional committees and taking decisions on them, and making proposals to the Minister of Agriculture concerning agricultural unemployment and labour shortages and methods of overcoming them.

Regional agricultural placement committees control the activities of the local offices, make suggestions to the Central Committee concerning measures to be taken and principles to be followed in placement, settle disputes between workers or employers and the employment offices, and make proposals on methods to alleviate unemployment. They meet at least three times a year, in February, June and September.

Selected Official References

Order: No. 6490/1945. 15 August 1945.

Order: No. 10080/1945. 25 October 1945.

Order: No. 3530/1946.

Order: No. 48400/1946. 11 July 1946.

India

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

In October 1943, the Government of India decided to open employment exchanges for technical personnel in some industrial centres. The importance of establishing a public employment service was fully appreciated, but the practical difficulties were tremendous. Thus 10 exchanges were started on an experimental basis, located in Calcutta, Bombay, Ahmedabad, Madras, Cawnpore, Lahore, Nagpur, Delhi, Jamshedpur and Karachi. Each of the 10 employment exchanges was placed under a suitably qualified manager, appointed by the national service labour tribunal¹ concerned (and often, in practice, the tribunal's technical inspector). A tradesman supervisor, capable of carrying out trade tests for workers seeking employment in the main engineering trades, was included in the staff as needed. The chairman of the national service labour tribunal, the manager and the joint manager constituted a committee to which difficulties in operation might be referred. Each employment exchange had a local employment committee consisting of two

¹ These tribunals, which were set up to administer the National Service (Technical Personnel) Ordinance, 1940, consisted of not less than 3 members appointed by the Central Government, had the powers of a civil unit and might record evidence, administer oaths, enforce the attendance of witnesses, and compel the production of documents.

representatives of employers, two of workers, one of the provincial Government and one Army representative, which was responsible for advising on all matters relating to the work of the exchange, including the general aspects of the problem of placing.

The initial success of the experiment was encouraging, and late in 1944 the Government of India proposed to undertake a large-scale expansion of the network of employment exchanges. In 1945 it established, under the supervision of the Department of Labour, a Directorate for the resettlement and re-employment in civil life of demobilised members of the defence services and discharged war workers. It was decided to increase the number of exchanges from 10 to 71 in order to facilitate the registration and placement of demobilised persons; training centres for the staff needed for the new exchanges were opened at Delhi, Bombay and Calcutta. By February 1946, 31 exchanges had been opened, consisting of 1 central, 9 regional and 21 subregional employment offices. It is planned to cover otherwise inaccessible areas of the country by mobile sections responsible to each subregional employment exchange. Appointments branches, dealing with applicants for higher grades of administrative, managerial, professional or technical appointments, have been opened at the central and regional employment exchanges.

The work of the central and regional sections is supervised by a Director-General of Resettlement and Employment, who is assisted by an advisory committee consisting of representatives of the Central and provincial Governments and of employers' and workers' organisations, and who has under him, at headquarters, 6 directorates dealing with employment offices and statistics, employment, technical training, vocational training, publicity, and welfare (follow-up), respectively. Committees have been set up, including representatives of public authorities, employers and workers, to supervise the working of each exchange and to help to develop its usefulness.

At present, expenditure incurred on the employment exchanges is shared almost equally between the Central and provincial Governments. However, a major part of the expenses may be borne by the Government of India for the next few years since the exchanges are doing a great deal of useful work in helping demobilised servicemen to find employment. Emphasis is being placed on the training of employment office managers and professional employment service staff, and the co-operation of the British employment service has been enlisted for this purpose.

General Functions

Each of the directorates under the Director-General of Resettlement and Employment has a clearly defined task to fulfil. The Directorate of Employment Offices and Statistics integrates and directs the work of the central, regional and subregional offices, and collects all relevant information pertaining to employment. The Directorate of Employment explores new avenues of employment and keeps abreast of all post-war development schemes. The Directorate of Technical Training organises, in collaboration with Government factories, railways, provincial Governments, and civil industry,

facilities for further technical training and apprenticeship training in factories for such technicians as may need this for civil employment. The Directorate of Vocational Training prepares schemes for the training of ex-servicemen in non-engineering trades, and organises training facilities in collaboration with provincial Governments, universities, and private institutions. The Directorate of Publicity promotes the employment of the demobilised by the Government and private employers. The Directorate of Welfare (Follow-up) maintains close liaison with labour welfare organisations of the Central and provincial Governments, with a view to ensuring that the interests of ex-servicemen in civil employment are safeguarded.

At present, the placement operations of the exchanges are confined largely to demobilised service personnel and displaced war workers, but it is intended to extend the system to cover all kinds of work and make the exchanges operate in such a way as to inspire confidence among employers and workers. As the exchanges develop fully in each province, it is proposed to keep count of both surplus and deficit labour supply in each area and rationalise its employment. At present, they deal only with unemployed technical personnel; minute classifications are applied to distinguish those coming within the scope of operations. As the operations increase and the staff and premises become capable of handling more, the system will be extended to the largest class of workers — domestic servants.

When an exchange finds that it cannot fill a vacancy locally or place a certain worker, it must notify the fact with full particulars to the central employment exchange, for circulation to other exchanges. Employment exchanges are asked to send to the central exchange monthly statistics of the work done by them, as well as a periodical return showing the numbers and trade categories of persons for whom they are not likely to be able to find employment locally and of vacancies which they cannot fill locally.

Regional exchanges also deal with the placing of demobilised army personnel. The occupations in which they are placed include the following: (1) agriculture; (2) afforestation; (3) charcoal burning; (4) road and building construction carried on by the Public Works Department; (5) railway work; (6) teaching, under the Educational Department; (7) secretarial work; (8) State police; (9) State Military Department; and (10) industrial concerns of the State.

To make placing work more effective, the central employment exchange at New Delhi co-ordinates the work of the regional exchanges and acts as an interprovincial clearing house. It issues fortnightly lists of service personnel who desire to be considered for higher grades of administrative, managerial, professional or technical appointments. These lists are distributed to all provincial Governments, Central Government departments, employers' associations and important employers throughout the country. The central exchange also deals with the registration and placement of temporary clerical staff retrenched from the Government of India departments in Delhi.

Use of the Service

Registration with the employment exchanges is not compulsory, but unemployed technical personnel are encouraged to register. Employers, however, are required to notify the employment offices of all vacancies for technical personnel (but not for any other type) in their establishments as they occur, and to furnish monthly reports as to how the vacancies have been filled. They are not required to engage applicants referred to them by the employment exchanges, although they are encouraged to apply to the offices for workers they desire; however, should an employer reject an applicant referred to him by an exchange, he must give reasons for the rejection. For this purpose, each recommended applicant is supplied with an identification card addressed to the employer, to which a reply prepaid postcard with the necessary entries is attached.

There are few data as yet concerning the operations of the employment exchange system, but the following give some idea of the initial success of the exchanges first established. Reports from five of them are available for the period of January to June 1944.

Centres —	Men registered —	Men placed in employment —
Bombay	1,981	819
Calcutta	1,950	355
Cawnpore	706	79
Madras	474	78
Delhi	167	—

The use of the service by employers and by workers is wholly voluntary. In each locality there has been a steady expansion in the use of the exchanges, particularly by employers. All Government departments and public undertakings have agreed to fill their vacancies through the employment exchanges.

The lack of suitable accommodation for the exchanges and of experienced staff is being overcome as the number of the exchanges increases.

Selected Official References

Indian Labour Gazette, Vol. I, No. 5, November 1943; Vol. I, No. 8, February 1944.

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA, DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR: *A Scheme for Setting up a Co-ordinated Organisation to Deal with the Resettlement and Re-employment in Civil Life of Demobilised Members of Defence Services and Discharged Workers Engaged in War Work* (Simla, 17 April 1945).

Iraq

In accordance with section 31 of the Labour Act No. 72 of 1936, an employment service was established in Iraq by a Regulation No. 37 of 19 May 1946. This regulation provides for the setting-up of a permanent Central Employment Board in Baghdad, to advise on employment questions. The Board is to meet at least once every three months, and is composed of 9 members: 4 employers' representatives representing the four main industries in Iraq, 4 representatives of the workers' organisations, and the Director of the Labour Section, who acts as chairman. All members of the Board are appointed by the Minister of Social Affairs. Other employment boards may be established in other parts of the country; they must be composed of 5 members: 2 employers' representatives, 2 workers' representatives, and an independent chairman. The Minister may establish employment agencies in Baghdad and, where necessary, in other parts of the country.

All unemployed workers seeking employment must register with the employment agencies, and all workers who are transferred from one industrial undertaking to another must also notify the agencies without delay. The owners of industrial establishments must co-operate with the employment agencies by submitting to them their requests for workers, specifying, if possible, the number of workers they desire, and the nature of the work for which they are needed. This, however, does not mean that they may not engage workers directly, or that they must accept the workers proposed to them by the employment agencies if they do not find such workers suitable or if they do not satisfy their industrial requirements.

Selected Official References

Regulation: No. 37, Establishment of Employment Agencies. 19 May 1946.

Ireland

The employment exchanges of Ireland were established under the Labour Exchanges Act, 1909. The system is administered by, and financed on a national basis through, the Department of Industry and Commerce. Local offices are maintained in the cities and principal towns of the country. In June 1946, there were free public employment offices at 117 centres, including 4 employment exchanges in Dublin—2 for men and 2 for women.

The offices are responsible for placing unemployed persons in available employment, for collecting information in regard to the condition and trend of employment and for promoting labour transfers as may be necessary to meet the requirements of the economy and of the unemployed workers.

The facilities of the service are used on a voluntary basis, except that persons claiming or receiving unemployment benefit or allowance are required to register for employment.

The following table indicates the operations of the employment exchanges and branch offices during the period 1939-1945.

EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE OPERATIONS, 1939-1945

Period ---	Vacancies notified ---	Vacancies filled ---
5 weeks ended 30 Dec. 1939	33,662	33,870
5 weeks ended 29 June 1940	8,779	7,747
4 weeks ended 28 Dec. 1940	22,093	22,549
4 weeks ended 28 June 1941	4,781	4,885
4 weeks ended 27 Dec. 1941	17,781	17,359
4 weeks ended 27 June 1942	4,652	4,520
4 weeks ended 26 Dec. 1942	14,679	14,715
4 weeks ended 26 June 1943	3,193	3,077
4 weeks ended 24 June 1944	2,715	2,604
5 weeks ended 30 Dec. 1944	13,504	13,735
5 weeks ended 30 June 1945	3,271	3,088

Selected Official References

Act: Labour Exchanges, 1909.

Italy

Legislative Basis and General Organisation

A Decree of 1916 provided in Italy for the payment of subsidies to employment offices opened by provincial or local authorities, employers' and workers' trade organisations acting jointly or in collaboration, and charitable associations. In 1918 the existing offices came under the supervision of the Government, which undertook to open new ones in places where the state of the employment market so required; and a joint board was set up at each employment office. In 1919 the placing and unemployment insurance services were co-ordinated and placed under a National Office, administered by a central committee and an executive council. The provincial employment and unemployment councils, the local employment offices and boards and the unemployment insurance funds were subordinate to the National Office, which collaborated closely with the department of the Commissioner-General for Emigration.

A further reorganisation took place in 1928 and 1929 under Decrees which provided that the employment offices should be located at the offices of the workers' unions; the co-ordination of their activity on a regional and national basis was to be in the hands of

the Ministry of Corporations, which would act in agreement with the office of the Commissioner for Internal Migration and Settlement and the other ministries concerned, after consulting the corporations. Use of the employment offices was compulsory both for employers and for workers. There were also special offices for certain classes of occupations — in the rice industry, the entertainments industry and commercial employment.

This scheme remained largely unchanged until the war. After the abolition of the Fascist trade union system, however, and pending the full adaptation of Italian legislation to the democratic principles of the new régime, the placing of workers was entrusted to the regional and provincial employment offices established first of all in Sicily by the Allied Military Government (General Order No. 8 of 25 September 1943) and subsequently in the other liberated regions. The activity of these offices is co-ordinated and supervised by the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, acting locally through the labour inspection services.

General Functions

The regional offices, which now number 13, are required to consider ways and means of ensuring the free organisation and free representation of the workers, to co-ordinate the work done and the information and statistics collected and compiled by the provincial labour offices, to prepare the issue of reports and bulletins concerning labour questions, to act as arbitrators, conciliators or mediators in industrial disputes of particular economic importance or affecting a whole region, and in general to perform any duties allotted to them.

The provincial offices, established in every province, are required to collect data and compile statistics concerning manpower, to establish local offices for the registration and distribution of labour, to act as conciliators, mediators or arbitrators in industrial disputes and in general to perform any duties allotted to them.

The employment offices are required to register and place workers free of charge, and to ensure priority employment for the class of persons known as *reduci* (former deportees, internees and resistance fighters). A Legislative Decree of 5 March 1946 provides that 10 per cent. of the jobs in each establishment must be reserved for these persons.

Selected Official References

Decree: No. 2214, Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance. 19 October 1919.

Decree: No. 1003, Employment Exchanges. 29 March 1928.

Decrees: Nos. 2333 and 2393, Employment Exchanges (Regulations). 9 December 1929.

General Order of Allied Military Government, No. 8, Labour Relations. 24 September 1943.

Legislative Decrees: Engagement of Former Deportees, Internees and Partisans. 4 August 1945, 14 February and 5 March 1946.

Netherlands

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

The first national employment office system in the Netherlands was established by Royal Decree of 1916, and consisted of a Directorate of Unemployment Insurance and Placing, with district and local offices. In 1930 an Act regulating employment exchanges required each local authority administering a commune with not less than 15,000 inhabitants to have a public employment office, while smaller communes were required to have an agency for the same object. Several communes could set up an employment office jointly. The activity of these local services was co-ordinated by the district offices, and that of the whole scheme by the State Unemployment Insurance and Employment Exchanges Department, assisted by the Central Auxiliary Board for Employment Exchange Work and Migration; the State Department appointed the directors of the local offices. Early in 1940 there were 43 employment offices, each covering from 2 to 42 communes.

The system was thoroughly revised by an Order of 24 September 1940, which placed it on a far more centralised basis. The Order established a State Employment Office as a section of the Department of Social Affairs, to administer the employment service, provide vocational guidance, and help to find jobs which would enable the holders to acquire occupational skills. The State Employment Office consisted of a central service and regional offices, each of which was required to set up a vocational guidance section. All free private employment exchanges not charging fees had to obtain the approval of the Secretary-General of the Department of Social Affairs, who was also empowered to withdraw permits previously issued to fee-charging employment agencies. During the whole of the occupation period the State Employment Office played an important part in the control of manpower and the application of the compulsory labour scheme.

The employment service was reorganised by an Order of 17 July 1944, which retained the State Employment Office and made it responsible for placement, vocational training, retraining and rehabilitation, and any other duties that may be entrusted to it. The Office is under a Director-General, who is responsible to the Minister of Social Affairs and assisted by a central auxiliary and advisory board. This body, which must comprise at least two delegates from representative associations of employers and an equal number from representative associations of workers, advises the Minister of Social Affairs and the Director-General, either at their request or on its own initiative. Under the State Employment Office there are local offices and agencies, with a director appointed by the Minister at the head of each and a board — composed in the same manner as the central board — attached to the director in a similar advisory capacity.

General Functions

The employment offices are responsible for the registration and placing of unemployed workers according to the rules summarised below under "Use of the Service".

Further, the Director-General of the State Employment Office is required to provide for the establishment of workshops and the organisation of training, retraining and rehabilitation courses. The local authorities must provide premises for this purpose, and employers must make arrangements so far as possibilities in their establishments permit. Both the authorities and the employers are entitled to compensation for such help at rates fixed by the Minister of Social Affairs. The State Employment Office appoints the persons to take charge of vocational training, after consulting with the employers. The regional offices and local agencies direct the persons who are to attend these courses, and the Director-General of the State Office decides the amounts payable to them plus any necessary allowance for travelling expenses.

Under an Order of 5 October 1945 the Minister of Social Affairs may instruct the Director-General of the State Employment Office to arrange for the reinstatement in their jobs, or the re-employment, of persons whose employment came to an end against their will after 9 May 1940, or earlier if the reason was mobilisation for active service.

The same Order also requires the employment service to supervise the termination of contracts of employment, such termination being subject to the previous consent of the director of a regional office. The director consults the labour inspection service, which in turn consults representatives of the organisations of the employers and workers concerned. The Minister of Social Affairs may also order that the conclusion of contracts of employment with workers or groups of workers specified by himself shall be subject to the approval of the director of the regional labour office (except in cases of reinstatement, mentioned above).

The Director-General of the State Employment Office and the central auxiliary and advisory board are responsible for the administration of the State Unemployment Insurance Fund. At the regional and local levels, the supervision of the unemployed is carried out through the regional employment offices and local agencies, where all unemployed workers are registered.

The Director-General of the State Employment Office is required to report, as soon after the close of each year as he can, on placement, vocational training, retraining and rehabilitation, and on unemployment insurance.

Use of the Service

Any worker whose employment terminates is required to inform the regional employment office, or the agency covering the district of his home or place of residence, within 3 days of such termination, unless he has meanwhile found other employment. An unemployed worker must accept any job considered suitable by the director of

the regional labour office or of the agency where he is registered (engagement on projects undertaken for or with the aid of the State Department for the provision of employment will be considered suitable employment). If a worker has serious objections to a job allotted to him, the director of the regional employment office or local agency will consult the advisory board. The worker must accept the board's decision; but if the director objects, he may refer the matter to the Director-General of the State Employment Office, whose decision is binding. The worker is not obliged to enter the employment in question until a final decision has been issued. If necessary, his travelling expenses will be refunded to him.

Workers registered as unemployed must comply with instructions from the regional employment office or local agency to attend courses of vocational training, retraining or rehabilitation.

A worker not complying with the above rules loses his right to unemployment assistance in any form.

An employer who wishes to dismiss a member of his personnel must first obtain the consent of the director of a regional employment office. The same applies to workers who wish to leave their employment. Such consent is however not required: (a) if the reason for cancellation of the contract is serious misconduct; (b) if such cancellation is agreed by both parties; (c) if it is due to the reinstatement of the worker in his previous job; or (d) in case of cancellation of the contract of a female worker engaged after 9 May 1940 to take the place of a man.

Before the war, statistical data concerning employment and unemployment were published in the annual reports of the State Unemployment Insurance and Employment Exchanges Department. Since the war, although the Director-General is supposed to submit annual reports, the exceptional conditions obtaining in the country immediately after the liberation have hitherto rendered it impossible to publish any figures regarding the work of the employment service.

Selected Official References

Act: Employment Exchanges, No. 433. 29 November 1930.

Order of Secretary-General of Department of Social Affairs: Employment Exchanges. 24 September 1940.

Decree: Employment Exchanges and Industrial Rehabilitation. 17 July 1944.

Decree: Labour Relations. 5 October 1945.

New Zealand

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

An Act to establish a National Employment Service for the purpose of promoting and maintaining full employment (No. 9 of 1945) was adopted in New Zealand on 12 November 1945.

Before the war, employment service activities were governed by the Employment Promotion Act of 1936. This Act established for the first time an employment service comparable to those in other countries. A State Placement Service was set up under the Employment Division of the Labour Department. By 1940, the Service consisted of 48 local offices and many suboffices operated through post offices in outlying areas. Under the 1936 Act, the administration of unemployment benefits was also centred in the Labour Department; the Social Security Act of 1938 repealed this provision, however, placing the unemployment benefit activities in the Social Security Department, while the State Placement Service remained under the Labour Department, which was also responsible for unemployment relief work projects.

After the outbreak of war, a National Service Department was set up and in 1940 became responsible for organising the country's human resources for war purposes. To carry out this task, it took over the headquarters and network of placement offices of the Placement Service of the Labour Department. In 1942, with the introduction of extensive controls over industrial manpower, the Employment Division of the National Service Department was converted into the Industrial Man-Power Division; the employment offices were replaced by a network of 22 district manpower offices, which carried out the employment service functions required under the wartime Man-Power Regulations. Later, the district offices were grouped around 3 regional offices, located at Christchurch, Auckland and Wellington. The total personnel of the service increased from 421 on 31 March 1941 to 1,055 on 31 March 1945; of these totals, the district office personnel accounted for 165 and 774, respectively.

At the end of the war, immediate action was taken to reorganise the country's employment service facilities for post-war purposes. The Employment Act of 1945, mentioned above, set up the National Employment Service, which is now in process of establishment and will take over the manpower machinery of the National Service Department. The Service is established on a centralised basis as a new department of State under the Minister of Employment, who is responsible for the administration of the Act. The Leader of the Legislative Council has stated that, while it was not absolutely necessary to set up a new department, the Government considered it desirable, in view of the importance of the matters with which it is to deal, to set it up as a separate department rather than as an appendage to an existing department. A Director of Employment acts as the administrative head of the department. The expenses of the Service are borne entirely by the central Government.

The Minister of Employment is authorised to appoint advisory councils or advisory committees to assist in administering the Act.

General Functions

The main task of the National Employment Service, as outlined in the Employment Act, is "to promote and maintain full employ-

ment at all times". To this end, the department is required to do the following :

(a) provide a complete employment service for the purpose of placing workers in employment, assisting employers to secure labour, assisting employers to provide employment, assisting persons in all sections of the community to find better or more suitable employment (whether in professional, technical, supervisory, or any other capacities), and assisting persons who require occupational readjustment or training or other assistance to enable them to continue or resume full-time employment;

(b) make surveys and forecasts of the classes of employment from time to time required or available or likely to be required or available, whether in industry or otherwise, and do all things deemed necessary or expedient for the purpose of placing suitable and qualified persons in such employment on a voluntary basis;

(c) generally do all things deemed necessary or expedient for the purpose of promoting and maintaining full employment, whether by facilitating the better location or availability of employment in relation to the labour available or otherwise howsoever.

The department is also authorised to establish, maintain, and operate hostels and other residential or boarding establishments for workers and to provide a home-aid service, by making the services of workers employed in such establishments available for domestic and other work in cases of emergency and in other special circumstances.

In outlining the work to be done by the new Service, the Leader of the Legislative Council stated that the Service would "carry out the functions that in past years were carried out to some extent, but not so fully as is now proposed, by the placement offices". The Service will go beyond the mere finding of jobs. It is empowered to take other measures for making employment available. It may, for example, make recommendations to the Government as to what should be done to decentralise employment and to increase job opportunities in particular areas. It may also suggest the extension of public works if, from its knowledge and experience of the employment situation, it considers the conditions warrant it and there is no other suitable opportunity of finding complete employment for the time being.

Use of the Service

Before the war, persons seeking unemployment benefit were required to register with the State Placement Service; this requirement will also apply to registration of claimants with the National Employment Service. Employers are now free to use the Service or not, as they prefer, and so far they have given ready support to its establishment. In defending the Employment Bill before the Legislative Council, the Leader of the Council stressed the fact that the Service would be used on a voluntary basis and would not be given powers of compulsion, except the negative one of regarding as voluntarily unemployed, and thus not entitled to unemployment

benefit, those persons who refused suitable employment offered them through the Service.

No statistics are available to show operations under the Employment Service now being set up, but some data are available to indicate the use made of the placement facilities which preceded the new Service.

NUMBER OF POSITIONS FILLED WITH PRIVATE EMPLOYERS
BY THE STATE PLACEMENT SERVICE

May 1936 — December 1941

Nature of placement	1936 May- Dec.	1937 Jan.- Dec.	1938 Jan.- Dec.	1939 Jan.- Dec.	1940 Jan.- Dec.	1941 Jan.- Dec.
Permanent (of three months' duration or more).....	9,530	17,650	12,885	11,370	10,827	12,303
Temporary (of more than one week's duration but less than 3 months).....	5,384	12,051	9,416	8,569	9,224	9,207
Casual (up to one week's duration).....	4,329	17,092	17,354	12,879	11,262	10,293
Total.....	19,243	46,793	39,655	32,818	31,313	31,803

During the year ended 31 March 1942, 33,531 (29,134 male and 4,397 female) persons registered with the Service as applicants for employment.

In 1942, wartime employment controls were extended to cover most of the available labour force and the use of the manpower offices. From the inception of industrial manpower control in January 1942 until 31 March 1945, 168,612 directions of employees were issued by the district manpower officers; of these, 149,533 were complied with. The work of the Department increased in the 12 months before 31 March 1945 because of repatriation programmes; some 78,154 directions of men to industry were made.

Selected Official References

NATIONAL SERVICE DEPARTMENT: *Reports* (on activities under the National Service Emergency Regulations 1940, the Emergency Reserve Corps Regulations 1941, and the Industrial Man-Power Emergency Regulations 1942 and 1944) for the years 1943, 1944 and 1945.

Parliamentary Debates, Second Session, 1945, of the Legislative Council on the Employment Bill, 31 October 1945 (Wellington).

Public Acts of New Zealand, 9 Geo. VI, Employment Act. No. 9 of 1945.

Norway

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

In Norway, employment offices were originally set up in various communes in accordance with an Act of 1906. Before the War of 1939-1945, there were some 50 communal offices, with 5 clearing areas in various parts of the country, and general supervision of the employment service work was exercised through the Inspector of Employment Exchanges of the Ministry of Social Affairs. The service was centralised on a national basis after the occupation of Norway in 1940, and its machinery and functions were strengthened and adapted to the needs of the occupying authorities and of the wartime economy of the country. The liberation Government took action to retain the employment service at a high level of strength and to reorganise its work in terms of the social and economic objectives of reconstruction. Finally, in May 1945, a series of provisional decrees were issued to govern the organisation and operation of the employment service machinery. The basic Act of 1906 is still in force, but the service remains centralised on a national basis as it has been since 1940.

By a provisional Decree of 4 May 1945, the employment service was placed under the control of a provisional Manpower Directorate, which is supervised by a board of directors consisting of a chairman (who is the Manpower Director) and 6 members, of whom 2 are representative of employers' organisations and 2 of workers' organisations. The Directorate is required to follow any rules and regulations laid down by the Crown and to carry out the day-to-day work of the employment service in accordance with the general policy decisions of the board of directors.

There is a national Economic Co-ordinating Council on which the employment service is represented. This Council is responsible for advising Government departments and boards and for laying down the general lines of policy to be followed to ensure co-ordination of public activities in the economic and social field.

In each county, the employment service is organised under a board of directors of 3 to 5 members, including at least one representative of the towns, one of the trade unions and one of employers' organisations.

Local employment offices function within each county under a secretary whose duties are outlined by a Royal Resolution. Their work is under the supervision of the communal unemployment council or a selected committee of this council.

General Functions

According to a Royal Resolution of 4 May 1945 concerning instructions to the Manpower Directorate, its main task is to organise and regulate the national employment market and to assist wherever possible in planning and undertaking measures to promote employment. The Directorate is to act as the official public employment

service on a provisional basis and periodically to obtain and analyse information on employment and unemployment. It is instructed to keep fully informed of, and to seek to co-ordinate, plans of other central Government agencies (such as the departments responsible for transport and communications, forestry, defence, etc.) in regard to public works and to assist in the carrying out of these plans, and also to perform the same functions in respect of county and commercial agencies. The Directorate must be kept fully informed about reconstruction plans and their execution and must assist, as necessary, in these plans. It is instructed to obtain information concerning the reasons for changes in employment, nationally and locally, and to suggest means of preventing unemployment and promoting employment. Moreover, it is required to draw up programmes for manpower distribution and redistribution where shortages of manpower exist and to plan the timing of the undertaking of public projects in the light of employment conditions.

The central board of directors is responsible for issuing monthly statements on the employment situation and for making decisions on proposals for regulations or other rules put forward by the Manpower Directorate. It appoints and pays the secretariat of the Directorate, exercises general control over the finances of the employment service, reports to the Ministry of Social Affairs on the activities of the service, and deals with complaints arising out of the work of the service. The county board of directors is the executive organ of the Manpower Directorate and carries out the duties delegated to it by the Directorate. Each board is instructed to investigate and analyse employment trends in the county, to determine the possibilities of improving the employment situation and to co-operate in the work of the county unemployment councils so far as their work enters into employment service work.

The Royal Resolution setting forth the general lines of county employment service organisation provides for a county employment office manager (who may be a member of the board of directors, though not the chairman or an employers' or workers' representative), responsible under the central Manpower Directorate for the conduct of employment service work within the county and for co-ordinating the work with that of other Government agencies concerned with employment and unemployment.

Use of the Service

According to present regulations, an employer is required to notify a local employment office of his labour requirements and to supply the office with any information it may request concerning the labour force employed by him. He is required to submit reports to the local office concerning his engagements of workers and terminations of employment. These obligations apply to employers generally, though certain employers or groups of employers may be

exempted or the scope of the restrictions otherwise limited, by Decree.

The Crown is authorised to issue regulations that all unemployed persons must register with the local employment office in their area of residence and also to require all employable persons, regardless of their employment status, to register for employment. Such regulations may be general or limited to particular localities, occupations or industries.

Selected Official References

Act: Employment Exchanges. 12 June 1906.

Order: Employment Exchanges. 8 October 1940 (repealed, 4 May 1945).

Provisional Instructions: Temporarily Supplementing Act of 12 June 1906.
4 May 1945.

Royal Resolution: Manpower Directorate (Rules). 4 May 1945.

Royal Resolution: Communal Committees of Manpower Directorate (Rules).
4 May 1945.

Royal Resolution: County Employment Committees (Rules). 4 May 1945.

Provisional Instructions: Provisional Manpower Directorate. 4 May 1945.

Poland

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

A Decree of 2 August 1945 provides that placement shall be the exclusive responsibility of the employment offices under the control of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare. Private employment agencies, whether fee-charging or free, are prohibited, with the exception of certain trade union agencies. Public employment offices are divided into three categories: 14 main employment offices are located in the principal cities; 49 local sections have been established in other important centres; and approximately 300 local offices have been organised by the autonomous local authorities. A General Employment Office was provided for by the Decree, but has not yet been established.

Every employment office is placed under the authority of a director, and is divided into one administrative section and one labour section. Its decisions may be revised by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, who will surrender this power to the General Employment Office when it is created.

General Functions

It is the duty of the employment offices to administer the employment policy of the State and to organise free public placement, both for unemployed workers and for apprentices. For this purpose, they must register all vacancies and work seekers, classifying the latter according to their work certificates or vocational qualifications. They must give full information to the workers concerning the positions offered to them, and to the employers concerning prospective workers. They are also responsible for assembling information on the employment market and for distributing the available manpower in accordance with the needs of the national and local employment situation.

If an employment office is unable to fill vacancies with workers from its own district, it must send a list of the unfilled vacancies to a central clearing office at the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, and, if possible, data supplied by the employers concerning conditions of employment, wages and housing facilities. These are communicated to employment offices throughout the country. When the necessary workers are found in other districts, the competent office is immediately notified. If it considers an applicant to be suitable for the work to be performed, he is given a card which enables him to travel to his destination at a reduced rate.

Use of the Service

A Decree of 8 January 1946, introducing compulsory labour, requires all Polish men between 18 and 55 years of age, and all Polish women between 18 and 45 years of age, to register at their local employment office, but there are a number of exceptions, including deputies to the National Council of the country, members of the armed forces on active service, judges, attorneys, assessors, officials of the State and communal administrations, workers in undertakings under the control of the State or of the autonomous local authorities, professors, professional workers, persons working in agriculture, forestry, cattle-raising or horticulture and members of their families, members of the clergy, and persons who have already registered in accordance with other labour service regulations. The following categories of persons must register, but may not be called upon to perform labour service: teachers in private schools, the owners and workers in industrial, commercial and handicraft undertakings deemed to be of national importance, students, sick and disabled persons, expectant and nursing mothers and women entrusted with the care of a child of under 14 years of age, and married women keeping house for a family of at least three persons.

All other registered persons may be called upon by the employment service to perform work of any type suited to their qualifications for not more than two years. They may indicate the kind of work they would like to do and select their place of employment if the employment office sends them away from their usual residence. They are paid wages not lower than those paid to other persons employed on similar work in the same branch of activity.

All employers must notify the employment offices of all vacancies and new engagements of workers within three days. Priority in placement is given to the following categories of workers: those who have special physical and vocational qualifications, those who are unemployed, those who have participated in the war for the liberation of Poland, those who have large families, and those who have been registered for the longest time. Employers have a right to refuse candidates proposed by the employment service if they deem them unsuitable. If a worker refuses work offered to him by the employment office, without sufficient reason, his name is struck off the register.

Although no detailed statistics have yet been published concerning the activities of the employment service, about 100,000 persons are, according to the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, registered with the offices (in 1946); some 60,000 of these are women. The employment offices register a monthly average of 60,000 applications for work, and place some 50,000 workers in employment. It is estimated that the actual number of unemployed workers in the country is about 200,000 to 300,000.

Selected Official References

Order of Minister of Labour and Social Welfare: Transfer of Activities of Employment Offices. 29 April 1945.

Consolidated text of Act of 17 March 1932: Assistance to Disabled Persons. 7 June 1945.

Decree: Employment Offices. 2 August 1945.

Decree: Partial Demobilisation. 10 August 1945.

Order of Minister of Labour and Social Welfare: Placement of Workers and Apprentices. 24 September 1945.

Decree: Registration and Obligation to Work. 8 January 1946.

Instruction of Minister of Labour and Social Welfare: Labour Clearing. 26 March 1946.

Order of Minister of Labour and Social Welfare: Organisation of Employment Offices. 29 April 1946.

Sweden

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

In Sweden, a number of public employment offices had been set up by degrees in the provinces and in certain municipalities before World War I, and some co-ordination of their work was obtained through the conditions governing the grant of State subsidy, for

which provision was first made in 1906, and which was extended by the Royal Notifications of 30 June 1916 and 16 May 1918.

The public employment offices were placed on a compulsory basis by an Act of 16 June 1934. Under this Act, public employment offices must be maintained by each provincial council and by those cities which are not represented on a provincial council; each employment office had a head office and a number of branch offices and agents. The Social Board of the Ministry of Social Affairs was given the authority of inspection and was responsible for the supervision and control of the offices. Each employment office was managed by a governing body of 4 members, 4 substitutes and a chairman (nominated by the Social Board) and vice-chairman, with equal representation of employers and workers. Most of the operating expenses were met by the provincial councils, but certain incidental expenses could be recovered from the State (*e.g.*, expenditure on forms and stationery, telegraph and telephone, and, under certain conditions, on the transport of workers going to a job in a new locality).

As a result of war changes in the employment market, it was considered desirable to centralise the employment service on a national basis and to increase its effectiveness by setting up a central body with the necessary authority to ensure uniformity and deal with questions concerning the distribution and employment of the available labour supply. Accordingly, by a decision of the Government of 7 May 1940, the service was shifted to a central national basis. The Employment Market Commission of the Ministry of Social Affairs was changed from a consultative to an administrative body and given the responsibility for directing and controlling the employment service. Since its centralisation, there has been a great expansion of the employment service organisation, particularly in the strengthening of the local facilities.

Employment agents have been appointed to an additional 80 localities, and in about the same number of localities branch employment offices have been substituted for the agents. By the middle of 1946, there were 221 branch offices, 465 employment agents performing almost the same tasks as the branch offices, and another 550 agents attached to a branch office or to an agent performing branch office work.

At the provincial level, special committees acting as "provincial labour boards" under the National Service Act of 30 December 1939, are responsible for directing the work of the local employment offices and agents. There are 25 such boards, each controlling a provincial office of the service. The boards also advise the Employment Market Commission on employment organisation questions and placement in their respective regions. Each of the provincial boards consists of a chairman and two members (with substitutes) nominated by the Government but appointed only after consultation with the employers' and workers' organisations of the province. An executive officer (the director), nominated by the Employment Market Commission and attached to each board acts as manager of the provincial office.

The working expenses and staff of the employment offices are borne by the State, and the work of the service is under national supervision and control exercised under the direction of the central Commission, through the provincial labour boards. The Employment Market Commission is responsible for the inspection of the service and the general formulation of policy. The total personnel of the employment service increased from 425 in 1940 to 2,163 in 1945.

The employment service has also been reinforced by various kinds of specialised arrangements. There are now 4 special employment offices for seamen, attached to the 4 chief employment offices at Stockholm, Göteborg, Malmö, and Hålsingborg; special advisers have been appointed to the provincial labour boards to improve the placement work of the women's section; and social curators have been attached to the provincial offices to assist in the placement of disabled persons. Juvenile employment offices have been set up in 20 provinces and a particular effort has been made to improve their staff and methods of work; and a special youth placement division has been created in the national headquarters of the service. A special placement service for salaried employees has been set up with headquarters in Stockholm and regional offices in the provinces, and the specialised placement arrangements for teachers and students have been integrated in this broader service. Also, special offices for artistes and musicians have been set up in 9 cities. All these specialised arrangements have been established as an integral part of the general public employment service, and their work is co-ordinated with that of the non-specialised employment offices.

The public employment service has maintained close relations with organisations of workers and employers. Representatives of these organisations sit as members of the Employment Market Commission and the provincial labour boards. In addition, advisory bodies are attached to these institutions, comprising a number of representatives of employers and workers from different branches of economic activity. Furthermore, it is the custom of the Commission, before taking any important decision, to discuss the matter with the central employers' and workers' organisations.

General Functions

Until the outbreak of war in 1939, the employment offices performed work which was for the most part connected with the placing of unemployed persons in receipt of some form of public assistance. While the aim was to give the employer the best workers and the worker the job for which he was best suited, in practice the depressed level of employment through most of the years preceding the outbreak of war meant that the offices were preoccupied with many routine duties connected with unemployment assistance.

With the centralisation of the employment service under the Employment Market Commission in 1940, the service took on many new responsibilities and the character of its functions was altered. It was charged with administering national service under the National Service Act and with allocating the supply of civilian labour to increase the number of workers available for essential work. The

employment offices took the initiative in promoting the removal, where necessary, of workers to other places or their transfer to other occupations or industries and endeavoured to make full use of labour which would otherwise not be fully utilised. At the request of the Government, the Commission has drawn up plans for facilitating labour mobility, including industrial training and retraining schemes, and for the provision of vocational guidance through the employment offices. It also expanded its informational tasks, compiling a register of undertakings and of the available labour supply. It was drawn into much closer contact with the work of other public authorities, at all administrative levels, and strengthened its machinery for collaborating with management and labour.

For the most part, the expansion of function which took place during the war will be retained in the post-war period, though the specific wartime tasks connected with defence mobilisation have disappeared or decreased in importance. The Employment Market Commission, following general policy instructions of the Government, plans to continue to broaden the tasks of the service in the technical organisation of employment and to continue to develop its co-operation in the general planning and application of employment policy. It considers the employment service a key instrument in promoting the maintenance of a high and stable level of employment.

Use of the Service

The use of the service is voluntary except that, under present Employment Market Commission regulations, employers are bound to notify the service of the engagement and termination of services of workers, and unemployed workers who are applicants for unemployment benefit or allowance or transfer or retraining assistance are required to register with a public employment office. Since 1940, the reporting of vacancies has increased by 100 per cent., the applications for employment by 70 per cent., and the placements made through the service by over 100 per cent., as indicated in the following tables:

ACTIVITIES OF THE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, 1939-1944

Period	Applicants	Vacancies	Placements
Oct. 1939 — Sept. 1940	1,088,637	634,519	505,182
" 1940 — " 1941	1,440,088	700,859	569,163
" 1941 — " 1942	1,487,911	928,771	730,859
" 1942 — " 1943	1,454,315	1,141,862	909,805
" 1943 — " 1944	1,524,103	1,100,779	891,865
" 1944 — " 1945	1,722,796	1,301,805	1,068,333

Source: Reports to the I.L.O. of the Swedish Government on the application of the Unemployment Convention, 1919.

Classified by occupation, the figures for the calendar year 1945 were as follows:

**PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICE OPERATIONS
BY OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS, 1945**

Occupational group	Number of applicants for work	Total applications	Number of vacancies	Number of vacancies filled	Number of applications as a percentage of vacancies		
					Men	Women	All
Agriculture and forestry...	68,803	118,536	251,849	184,891	46	65	47
Industry and handicrafts	280,174	691,898	323,284	281,100	231	123	214
Land transport and shipping...	50,341	154,631	82,269	79,261	188	180	188
Commerce, hotels and restaurants....	49,473	131,663	122,986	97,466	179	86	107
Administration; clerical and technical work and liberal professions....	49,274	156,600	80,498	70,749	215	157	195
Public health and nursing...	11,178	20,353	24,634	15,475	153	75	83
Domestic work....	59,797	202,311	272,355	198,479	39	74	74
Other....	153,529	280,128	183,193	168,524	131	240	153
Total....	722,569	1,756,120	1,341,068	1,095,945	152	98	131

Source: *Sociale Meddelanden*, No. 3, 1946, p. 259.

Selected Official References

Act: Public Employment Service. 15 June 1943.

Act: Employment Agencies. 18 April 1935 (No. 113), as amended by Act of 31 August 1940 (No. 784) and Act of 30 April 1942 (No. 209).

Instruction: State Employment Market Commission. 7 May 1940 (No. 326), as amended by Royal Notifications of 31 August 1940 (No. 812), 18 October 1940 (No. 887) and 21 May 1943 (No. 250).

Royal Notification: Provincial Labour Boards. 7 May 1940 (No. 328).

Royal Notification: State Control of Public Employment Service. 7 May 1940 (No. 329), amended by Royal Notification of 30 June 1943 (No. 452).

Royal Notification: Engagement of Employees and Termination of Engagements. 10 May 1940 (No. 330).

Order: Compulsory Notification of Engagements of Employees. 30 April 1943 (No. 218).

Royal Notifications: Employment in the Peat Industry. 29 May 1942 (No. 267) and 29 July 1943 (No. 641).

FINANSDEPARTMENTET: *Den offentliga arbetsförmedlingen under krigsåren*, Part I (Statens offentliga utredningar, 1946, No. 44).

Switzerland

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

An Order of 1909 granted Federal subsidies to public employment exchanges, cantonal associations for relief in kind sharing in the operation of public employment services, and the Association of Employment Offices. Another Order, dated 1919, established a Federal Unemployment Assistance Office as a division of the Department of National Economy and required it to promote the development of employment services, for which it became the central organ. The subsidised agencies were to open special women's sections, undertake placing free of charge, and collaborate in publishing data concerning the employment market. An Order of 1924, which is still in force, required the cantons to set up employment offices, but left it open to several cantons to have a joint office. Some cantons went further and established communal or district employment offices, the latter covering several communes; the work of these offices is co-ordinated by the cantonal offices, which come in their turn under the Federal Office of Industry, Handicrafts and Labour. The Federal Office keeps each cantonal office informed, through a daily bulletin, of the offers of and applications for employment received from all the cantons. The Order also provides for the institution, at each employment office, of advisory committees comprising representatives of employers and workers in equal numbers. In some cantons these committees act as supervisors of the work of the employment offices, whereas in others they are restricted to advisory functions. Lastly, the Federal Department of National Economy takes the necessary action to co-ordinate the activities of public and private employment agencies not charging fees.

At the beginning of the war in Europe, a compulsory labour service was established in Switzerland. Under this scheme, each canton was required to have a central office responsible for the direction of manpower, as well as local offices if necessary. At the national

level the Wartime Office for Industry and Labour supervised enforcement of the compulsory labour scheme.¹

General Functions

The employment offices are required to place workers free of charge and impartially. They must register persons in receipt of unemployment benefit and attempt to find jobs for them. Nevertheless, even after registration with an employment office, unemployed persons are expected to look for work on their own account. If an unemployed worker refuses a job considered suitable by the employment office, the latter will immediately inform the unemployment fund and the authority responsible for checking of the unemployed before the grant of benefit. Jobs in occupations other than that previously followed, or away from the unemployed person's home, may also be considered suitable.

An Order dated 28 May 1940 requires the employment service to ensure that action is taken to balance the supply of and demand for labour and to facilitate continued occupational training for the unemployed. The Federal Government pays subsidies to the employment offices for performance of the following functions: transference of workers from one locality to another; reinstatement of unemployed in their own occupation; and direction of workers to occupations able to provide employment for them. They also instruct unemployed persons to attend classes for vocational training, continued training and retraining subsidised by the Federal Government and intended, respectively, to prepare unskilled workers for employment in a given trade; to develop in skilled workers a fuller knowledge of the occupation chosen; and to enable unemployed workers to move from crowded occupations to those where labour is required.

The employment service collects and provides the authorities with information concerning the manpower available, the openings for employment, the qualifications required in the various occupations, and in general any information needed to formulate an employment market policy.

The principle of collaboration between the employment service and the authority responsible for creating work is accepted in Switzerland. The employment service therefore helps in co-ordina-

¹ Under the compulsory labour service regulations, which were repealed by an Order of 20 September 1946, the cantonal and local offices responsible for the direction of manpower were required to prepare, in respect of each locality, a list of essential establishments and services, with a statement of their labour needs and of the manpower available to them. All males between 16 and 65 years of age and all females between 16 and 60 were liable for compulsory labour service; and the above-mentioned manpower offices called up individuals for this service according to manpower requirements. As a general rule, persons who became available owing to the closing of non-essential establishments or services were called up first; next came the unemployed and persons who volunteered for immediate service; and finally other persons who already had employment. When allocating the persons called up, the offices had to take into account their physical condition, occupational qualifications and family responsibilities. The contract of employment of a worker liable under the compulsory labour scheme could not be terminated without the consent of the competent office.

ting public works, carrying out investigations regarding the establishment of new industries, and reorganising unemployment relief works and labour camps and services.

The employment service also collaborates closely with the employers' and workers' organisations, both through the advisory committees attached to each employment office and also by promoting the establishment of joint employment services (this has been done for engineers, architects, technicians, commercial employees, musicians). Further, the occupational organisations concerned are always consulted as regards any new action connected with employment.

Use of the Service

Any person in receipt of unemployment benefit is required to register with the public employment service for his place of residence, and to try to find work himself. If he refuses a job which the local employment office considers suitable (including jobs in other occupations or away from his home), the office will immediately inform the fund and the authority responsible for the preliminary check on the unemployed. In the same way, unemployed persons who have been directed to vocational training courses must attend the courses regularly; if not, they will be reported by the manager of the course to the unemployment fund and the authority responsible for the preliminary check.

Compulsory labour service consists of civilian work urgently required in the general interest of the country, and may be done either at the place of residence or elsewhere. The scheme has been applied in agriculture, forestry, coal mining, peat cutting, construction work of national importance, etc. Refusal to serve is punishable by imprisonment for not more than a year or — in less serious cases — by a fine not exceeding 500 francs.

The following table compares the number of applications for employment, vacancies and placements in the two years ending 31 August 1937 and 30 September 1945 respectively:

Service	Applications		Vacancies		Placements	
	1936-37	1944-45	1936-37	1944-45	1936-37	1944-45
Public employment offices.....	351,018	157,301	159,689	143,074	132,403	90,864
Subsidised joint employment services.....	10,161	12,315	5,479	11,041	2,994	6,183

Selected Official References

Federal Order: Promotion of Employment Services. 29 October 1909.

Order: Employment Exchanges. 11 November 1924.

Order of Federal Council: National Security and Maintenance of Neutrality. 30 August 1939.

Order: Labour Service. 17 May 1940.

Order: Employment Market and Training of Unemployed. 28 May 1940.

Order of Federal Council: Emergency Unemployment Relief. 14 July 1942.

Order of Federal Council: Direction of Manpower (Food and Fuel Industries).
5 October 1945.

Turkey

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

In accordance with a provision of the Labour Code (Act No. 3008 of 8 June 1936), an Employment Service Department was established in Turkey by Act No. 4837 of 25 January 1946. It is attached to the Ministry of Labour, which is to determine the places where offices shall be established and the provinces or towns for which these offices shall be competent. The principal official of the Department is the Director-General, who is assisted by two deputy directors and the staff of the central and branch offices. One of the deputy directors must be a doctor. The Director-General and his deputies are appointed by the Council of Ministers on the recommendation of the Minister of Labour. Attached to the Department is an advisory committee composed of representatives of the authorities, of the chambers of commerce and industry and of the workers' organisations. This body is required to examine questions falling within the Department's terms of reference, make recommendations to the Minister of Labour and give its opinion on matters referred to it by him.

The activities of private employment exchanges, whether charging fees or not, are subject to the provisions of the Labour Code. This prohibits the opening of private agencies conducted for gain and attaches certain conditions to the operation of those already in existence when the Code came into force.

General Functions

The Labour Code provides that the Employment Service Department shall perform the following functions: collect data respecting economic activity of all kinds and all other free industrial work or service; co-ordinate the supply of and demand for labour; observe fluctuations in wages and cost of living, and with reference to the results prepare general, regional or local action to prevent social disorders, and take such action by the most appropriate means; publish lists of employers and workers in the different industries and occupations; arrange for the necessary measures to improve

the vocational qualifications of workers and to train skilled personnel; and co-operate in the conclusion of contracts of employment.

Use of the Service

Employers applying to the Department for workers must send in a written statement specifying the rates of pay and other conditions attaching to the work in question. This statement constitutes an obligation on the employer but cannot involve a modification, to the workers' disadvantage, of the provisions of the standing rules of the establishment. Further, the employer must advance the amount required to cover the travelling and incidental expenses of workers for whom they apply to the Department. The latter receives such advances and transfers them to the workers.

Selected Official References

Act No. 3008: Labour Code. 8 June 1936.

Act No. 4837: Employment Service Department. 25 January 1946.

Union of South Africa

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

The employment service of the Union of South Africa, set up by administrative measures, is organised on a national basis under the general control of the Minister of Labour. The service operates largely through offices set up under the divisional inspector of labour in the chief town of each of the labour districts. Each of these 7 offices does most of its placement work in the town in which it is located, but it also acts as a clearing house for the district. In 4 other of the larger population centres, free employment offices have been established as suboffices of the divisional inspectorates. Thus, altogether, the employment service conducted by the Department of Labour includes 11 main offices. Their work is co-ordinated by the headquarters of the Department of Labour, which is responsible for policy direction of the offices and for inspection. The headquarters of the Department also serves as a national clearing house and takes particular responsibility for the placement of clerks, typists and semi-professionals.

In addition, every magistrate and full-time justice of the peace and/or Native commissioner who is stationed in a district not directly served by an office of the Department of Labour conducts a free employment agency on behalf of the Department. There are 316 of these agencies.

The centrally operated public employment offices have recently been opened to Coloured persons and Asiatics, but they do not function for Natives. Natives are served by a free service conducted by the Native Affairs Department. When Natives move from one district to another (so proclaimed under the Native Labour Regulation Act), the pass officers, who are responsible for supervising the movement of Natives from one area to another, serve in practice as employment agencies with which Natives register for work.

In order to strengthen the employment service facilities of the Union, a Registration for Employment Act was adopted in 1945 (No. 34 of 1945). The Act does not appear to have made major changes in the basic structure of the employment service, but it provides for the appointment of area employment officers with a number of important employment service responsibilities, one of which is that they shall conduct and carry on an employment office in the area for which they are appointed (the area is determined by the Minister of Labour by notice in the *Government Gazette*). The Act may not be declared applicable to Natives without the permission of the Minister of Native Affairs.

In the principal centres of population and in several rural areas, public employment offices dealing specifically with juvenile work-seekers, and advised by juvenile affairs boards, had been established before the war of 1939-1945. At the outbreak of war, there were 27 of these offices. During the war, the activities of some of them were curtailed, and three-man advisory committees were established to perform their functions. The Registration for Employment Act, 1945 (which repealed the Juvenile Act, 1921, though the boards established under this Act are considered established under the new Act), now gives the Minister of Labour power to appoint a juvenile affairs board for whatever area or occupation he deems necessary. The members of the boards are appointed by the Minister of Labour from nominations by organisations representing the interests of employers, employees and social and educational bodies.

Under the Soldiers and War Workers Employment Act, 1944, employment committees for soldiers and war workers, representative of employers, employees, public bodies and Government departments, were established in the principal and larger population centres to assist employment agencies in obtaining suitable civil employment for volunteers returning from military service. These committees also act in an advisory capacity to the employment offices in connection with the general questions of re-employment of returned soldiers and displaced war workers. In addition to these employment offices administered by the Government, free private employment agencies are conducted by most associations of workers. They are confined principally to the large industrial centres and function in close collaboration with the public employment offices. Private fee-charging employment agencies must be registered with the Government, which controls their operations.

General Functions

Before the war, the chief function of the employment service was to assist in providing relief work of a Government-subsidised nature. During the war, its tasks were increased somewhat, but much of the wartime machinery for manpower mobilisation and distribution was built up outside the Department of Labour and bypassed the public employment offices. The need to strengthen the employment service and to expand its functions along more positive lines was recognised, however. Thus, the Registration for Employment Act of 1945 gives the Minister of Labour the power to require all workseekers of any specified class in any area within which he wishes the Act to apply and who are unemployed for 7 days or more to register with an employment officer appointed for that area. Exception is made for persons who are registered as contributors to an unemployment benefit fund or are members of a trade union, since the secretaries of management committees of such organisations must furnish to the employment officer such particulars concerning unemployed members as may be prescribed by regulation. Employers in the specified area or industry must notify the employment officer (unless exempted by the Minister) of the engagement or termination of service of persons over the age of 15 years. This Act does not apply to employers with respect to the employment of any person in agriculture, or in domestic service in private households. The employment officers are also made responsible for providing vocational guidance for workseekers.

The duties of each juvenile affairs board, as outlined in the Registration for Employment Act, are: (1) to maintain a register of all juvenile workseekers under its jurisdiction; (2) to conduct and carry on an employment office for juvenile workseekers within the area of its jurisdiction; (3) to make due provision for affording guidance to juvenile workseekers in regard to the choice of employment, by means of the collection and communication of information and the furnishing of advice; (4) to take such steps as may be approved by the Minister for exercising a general and continuous supervision over juvenile workseekers in the area of its jurisdiction.

Use of the Service

Before the war, the use of the employment service was almost entirely on a voluntary basis: employers were not required to notify the offices of terminations of engagements; however, the unemployed members of trade unions or unemployment benefit funds were registered with the service. The coverage of the service for those seeking employment was narrow, and its contacts with private industry were slight. The proportion of all placements made through its offices was never high. Statistics showing the total number of applicants for work and of placements made by the public employment offices are given in the following table:

EMPLOYMENT SERVICE WORK, DECEMBER 1939-JUNE 1945

Date	Applicants for work		Placements	
	Adults	Juveniles	Adults	Juveniles
1939—December	5,143	1,600	2,019	432
1940—June	6,166	1,082	3,054	700
December	2,682	1,498	916	575
1941—June	2,782	671	1,160	469
December	2,446	1,351	1,050	713
1942—June	4,155	594	1,949	429
December	3,973	1,386	1,281	673
1943—June	5,439	616	2,026	400
December	3,011	988	1,639	526
1944—June	3,674	455	2,164	388
December	1,704	1,163	1,134	697
1945—June	3,526	547	2,404	415

Under the Registration for Employment Act, 1945, use of the employment service was made compulsory in certain respects, as indicated above. The power to require the registration of work-seekers and the notification of engagements or terminations of employment by employers has only recently been put into effect and no information is yet available concerning its application. It is not necessarily universal in the country, but only in the areas selected by the Minister as those in which the Registration for Employment Act is to apply.

Selected Official References

- Act: Native Labour Regulation. No. 15 of 1911.
 Act: Natives (Urban Areas) Act No. 21 of 1923, as amended by Acts No. 25 of 1930, No. 46 of 1937, No. 36 of 1944 and No. 43 of 1945.
 Act: Industrial Conciliation Act. No. 36 of 1937.
 Act: Soldiers and War Workers Employment Act. No. 40 of 1944.
 Act: Registration for Employment Act. No. 34 of 1945.

United States

THE UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

The United States Employment Service (U.S.E.S.), as now organised, was set up by the Wagner-Peyser Act of 6 June 1933, the present permanent Federal legislation which provides for "the establishment of a national employment system and for co-operation with the States in the promotion of such system, and for other purposes". The Service has been operated on a Federal-State basis, except from 1942 to 1946, when it was shifted to a wholly national basis to meet emergency wartime needs.

Before the adoption of the Wagner-Peyser Act, efforts had been made to establish a nation-wide public employment service, but had met with little success. Before the war of 1914-1918, there were fewer than 100 public employment offices in existence in the various States and there was no effective co-ordination of their work from one State to another or indeed from one city to another, despite initial Federal steps in this direction; there were at the same time several thousand private fee-charging agencies.

During World War I, however, a Federal employment service, the United States Employment Service, was set up in the Department of Labor and expanded rapidly until the end of the war, when Congress refused to appropriate further funds for its work and the Service was forced to disband. Many of the States then took action to set up State-wide public employment service facilities or to continue work already done along these lines. By 1931, 31 States had established such facilities and 8 other States had legislation for the purpose which had not yet been applied.

All these activities were limited, however, by a lack of funds — a situation which grew steadily worse during the depression. Hence the Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933 was adopted to promote the development of public employment service facilities throughout the country by granting a Federal subsidy for employment service purposes to the States, on a dollar-for-dollar basis, provided that the State submitted a plan for employment service operation within the State which was approved by the Federal Director of the United States Employment Service. To meet the immediate mass unemployment of the depression, a National Re-employment Service was set up as an emergency division of the U.S.E.S., on a temporary basis within the Federal Department of Labor, and was financed and operated by the Federal Government. Funds made available for this Service were also utilised in expanding the State employment services, however. In 1935, the Federal Social Security Act was passed, providing, *inter alia*, for a Federal-State unemployment insurance system and assigning to the employment service certain major responsibilities connected with its administration. Since the Federal-State employment service could not carry out these responsibilities without funds additional to those provided under the

Wagner-Peyser Act (which were limited in amount each year under the terms of the Act), the moneys made available for financing the unemployment insurance scheme were used at the same time for financing the necessary expansion of State employment service facilities. By 1938, 47 States were operating employment services approved under the Wagner-Peyser Act by the U.S.E.S. headquarters, which was operated as a bureau in the Department of Labor. Under the provisions of Part 2 of the Re-organization Plan No. 1, promulgated pursuant to the Re-organization Act of 1939, the Employment Service was transferred to the Federal Security Agency and its duties and functions were to be consolidated with the unemployment insurance activities of the Social Security Board; its administration continued to be on a Federal-State basis, carried out through the Social Security Board, the office of Director of the U.S. Employment Service being abolished. Immediately after the entry of the United States into the war, the governors of the 48 States were requested by the President to transfer to the Federal Government the administration of the State employment service systems. On 1 January 1942, this change became effective. On 17 September 1942, pursuant to Executive Order No. 9247, issued under title I of the First War Powers Act, the Service was transferred to the War Manpower Commission in order that its facilities could be used for civilian manpower mobilisation. On 19 September 1945, the Manpower Commission was abolished and the Service retransferred to the Department of Labor, by Executive Order No. 9617 under the War Powers Act at first, and more permanently through the Act making appropriations for the Department of Labor for the fiscal year 1946-47. This last Act provided for the return of the Service by November 1946 to State administration, with 100 per cent. Federal financing as well as with Federal supervision and co-ordination of the State services.

At present, therefore, the Employment Service functions on a Federal-State basis. The headquarters of the Service in Washington, under a Director, allocates funds to the State service, conditional upon State submission of an acceptable plan of organisation and operation and State compliance with minimum national rules and regulations. The headquarters administration supervises State operation through 11 regional offices. Each State has a central headquarters for employment service operation, generally organised as a co-ordinate part of the State agency responsible for unemployment insurance. There are over 1,700 local employment offices, located in almost every important industrial centre of the country, and other areas are served as "itinerant points", in which an employment office is operated on a part-time basis by travelling employment service staff. Altogether, the United States Employment Service employs a staff of some 23,000 persons.

General Functions

Before the war of 1939-1945, the State employment service systems were operated in the closest conjunction with the State

unemployment compensation schemes. Since the employment services had been developed during the depression years, this meant that their basic placement and re-employment functions were subordinated to the more limited activities which they had to perform in connection with unemployment insurance administration. With the initiation first of the defence, and then of the war, production and manpower schemes, however, a new emphasis was placed on the more positive functions of the employment offices, and particular efforts were made to develop the tasks of these offices in placing skilled workers and in transferring workers from one city and State to another. Even before the war ended, the Employment Service was engaged in adapting its functions to the anticipated requirements of the post-war period. This involved an extension of occupational research and employment counselling, which had been contracted during the war, and the emergence of labour market information for general public use. The present peacetime programme of the Employment Service consists of six main inter-related tasks, considered the minimum requisites for all fully operating employment offices, and defined, very briefly, in the following six-point programme of action:

(1) An effective placement service to facilitate the employment and re-employment of returning service men and women, displaced former war workers, youths entering the labour market, disabled veterans and other handicapped workers, old workers, women, and all other persons seeking jobs.

(2) Employment counselling to determine the present and potential occupational abilities and interests of workers in the light of realistic information about job requirements and employment opportunities.

(3) Special services to veterans, including employment counselling, preferential service by the local office and priority of referral to any suitable job.

(4) Personnel management services to assist employers and labour organisations in the use of personnel, tools and techniques, developed by the Employment Service for effective selection, assignment and transfer of workers.

(5) Labour market analysis and information of the Employment Service to be used by workers for choosing among various employment opportunities or for planning vocational careers; by employers in locating plants or scheduling production to best utilise available labour resources; and by training authorities and community groups and other agencies whose programmes are affected by manpower considerations.

(6) Co-operation with community and Government agencies planning for and acting to increase economic activity and maintain high levels of stabilised employment.

Use of the Service

The use of the Service was on a purely voluntary basis at first, but its contacts with job seekers were greatly extended as a result of the requirement under State unemployment insurance schemes that benefit claimants should be registered with the employment service. This brought the local offices into touch with a broadly representative cross-section of the working population for the first

time. Contacts with employers remained limited up to the outbreak of war, however; few employers in any industry made use of the employment offices except to find unskilled labour.

The war brought a distinct change. As a result of local schemes developed in co-operation with management and labour to stabilise war employment, many of the defence industries began to hire most of their workers through the Employment Service though they were not required to do so. This was the case in recruitment for the shipbuilding and aircraft industries, for example. With the extension of the so-called voluntary system of employment controls on a national basis, the hiring of male labour and, in some areas, female labour as well was for the most part done through or with the consent of the local employment office, in accordance with procedures worked out in collaboration with the area war manpower management-labour committees.

The following figures of non-agricultural placements give some idea of the extent to which U.S.E.S. facilities were used during the war years:

Year	Number of placements
1940	3,444,000
1941	5,089,000
1942	6,920,000
1943	9,393,000
1944	11,446,000
1945	9,800,000

Thus, while the total number of placements made in 1945 was one seventh less than at the wartime peak in 1944, it represented an increase of more than $2\frac{1}{2}$ times the total number made in 1940.

The distribution of the non-farm placements made during these years, by major industry groups, was as follows:

Industry division	Percentage of placements					
	1945	1944	1943	1942	1941	1940
Mining.....	1.5	1.5	1.1	0.6	0.6	0.7
Construction....	6.7	6.3	10.7	23.2	19.9	17.8
Manufacturing...	55.9	59.8	60.2	36.7	23.3	20.0
Transportation ¹ ..	8.1	7.8	4.2	3.2	3.0	2.7
Trade.....	10.3	8.7	6.4	9.8	17.2	18.4
Service.....	11.1	9.4	9.8	17.8	30.8	36.1
Other ²	6.4	6.5	7.6	8.7	5.2	4.3
All divisions..	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Information furnished by the Reports and Analysis Division, U.S. Employment Service; and *Social Security Yearbook*, 1944 (Washington, 1945).

¹ Includes communications and other public utilities.

² Includes finance, insurance, and real estate, regular Government agencies, Government relief projects, and establishments not elsewhere classified.

Unskilled placements still accounted for more than half the placements made during 1945 (approximately 5,200,000), semi-skilled

placements for about one seventh, and clerical, sales, service and skilled placements for about one tenth each of the total. Less than 125,000 placements (1.2 per cent. of the total) fell into the professional and managerial group. The distribution of the types of placements made in 1944 and 1945 are quite significant, as indicated in the following table:

NON-FARM PLACEMENTS MADE BY U.S. EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, BY CLASS, 1944 AND 1945

Class of placement	Number		Percentage change	Percentage distribution	
	1945	1944		1945	1944
Non-farm placements...	9,799,185 ¹	11,446,007	-14.4	100.0	100.0
Major occupational groups:					
Professional and managerial.....	121,567	132,956	- 8.6	1.2	1.2
Clerical and sales.....	896,444	1,029,926	-13.0	9.1	9.0
Service.....	1,104,082	1,175,443	- 6.1	11.3	10.3
Skilled.....	1,051,065	1,322,576	-20.5	10.7	11.6
Semi-skilled.....	1,454,522	1,687,585	-13.8	14.8	14.7
Unskilled and other...	5,171,505	6,097,521	-15.2	52.9	53.2
Race:					
White.....	7,921,410	9,390,802	-15.6	80.8	82.0
Non-white.....	1,877,775	2,055,205	- 8.6	19.2	18.0
Sex:					
Men.....	6,838,640	7,643,475	-10.5	69.8	66.8
Women.....	2,960,545	3,802,532	-22.1	30.2	33.2
Veteran status:					
Veterans.....	1,194,578 ²	806,139 ³	+48.2	12.2	7.0
Non-veterans.....	8,604,607	10,639,868	-19.1	87.8	93.0
Handicapped.....	299,622 ⁴	288,499 ⁵	+ 3.9	100.0	100.0
Disabled veterans.....	134,842	⁶	⁶	45.0 ⁶	⁶
Other.....	164,780	⁶	⁶	55.0 ⁶	⁶

Source: Information furnished by Reports and Analysis Division, U.S. Employment Service; and *Social Security Yearbook*, 1944 (Washington, 1945).

¹ Excludes 9,291 non-agricultural placements for which distribution by class was not reported. ² Includes 1,036,923 World War II veterans; and 134,842 disabled veterans also shown under handicapped placements. ³ Data not available for number of disabled veterans for the entire year. ⁴ Includes the group of disabled veterans also classified under veterans. ⁵ Distribution of the handicapped only. ⁶ Data not available.

OTHER PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICE FACILITIES

In addition to the United States Employment Service there are special Federal services which are responsible for the placement of railroad labour, farm labour, workers employed by agencies of the United States Government, and maritime labour (the last named group is not dealt with in this Report).

The Railroad Retirement Board operates under the authority of, and administers, the Railroad Retirement Act and the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act. Under the former Act, the Board certifies for payment, at its headquarters office, applications for annuity benefits received from retired railroad employees who are eligible for such benefits under the Act. Under the latter Insurance Act, the Board, in its 9 regional offices (located at Atlanta, Chicago, Cleveland, Dallas, Denver, Kansas City, Minneapolis, New York, and San Francisco), certifies for payment claims for benefits under the Act. In addition, in accordance with the same Act, the Board operates an employment service, primarily for the purpose of referring persons with railroad experience to railroad job openings. Instructions and procedures for the guidance of the regional and field offices in the operation of the employment service are prepared in the division of employment service in the bureau of employment and claims, and flow to the regional directors and thence to the heads of the field offices.

The coverage of the Railroad Retirement Board's employment service is nation-wide in scope. The actual employment service operations of referral and placement are carried on in the Board's 108 field offices, which are located strategically throughout the country to coincide with railroad operations. The field offices, so-called, consist of district offices, branch offices, and base point offices.

The Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act requires the Railroad Retirement Board to give preference to persons with railroad experience in referring applicants to railroad job openings. Referrals are made by the Board's field offices from: (1) claimants for benefits under the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act; (2) other persons who have had railroad experience; and (3) in emergency cases in which railroads have an immediate urgent demand for personnel, persons who have not had railroad experience.

Under the Wagner-Peyser Act the U.S.E.S. is required to maintain an adequate farm placement service. However, during the war, the responsibility for maintaining farm placement service activities was transferred to the Department of Agriculture (by directive of the War Manpower Commission.) The Department established a service for the recruitment, referral and placement of farm workers. This is carried out through the Extension Service and its system of State and county extension agents, to whom the Department makes grants out of Federal funds. The Extension Service administered and supervised the intrastate aspects of the wartime farm labour programme, including direct action through State extension services in the recruiting and placing of farm labour from local, urban and interstate sources; the establishment of farm placement centres; the training of workers; and other phases of the Emergency Farm Labor Program, in co-operation with the Office of Labor of the Department of Agriculture. This programme was continued after the end of the war; under the Appropriation Act of 1947 provision was made for the further grant of Federal funds for this purpose.

The Civil Service Commission, which was created by Act of Congress in 1883, has primary responsibility for the recruitment of workers for agencies of the United States Government. It also formulates policies and procedures for the maximum utilisation of veterans and issues instructions as to what procedure Federal agencies shall follow in granting re-employment rights to veterans in accordance with the provisions of the Selective Training and Service Act and the Veterans Preference Act.

*Relationships between the United States Employment Service
and Other Public Employment Service Facilities*

Co-operative arrangements have been established between the United States Employment Service, and the Railroad Retirement Board and the specialised employment services dealing with farm labour and civil service recruitment. Thus the Employment Service does not participate in these particular fields of employment except when it is requested by the appropriate agency to aid in recruitment. On request the Service accepts employment orders referred to it by the other employment agencies and recruits against such orders. Moreover, arrangements have been made for an interchange of information between these various Federal services, both for operating and for labour market analysis purposes.

Selected Official References

- Act: National Employment Exchange System, 1933. Public Law No. 30, 73rd Congress (Wagner-Peyser Act).
- Act: Social Security, 1935. Public Law No. 271, 74th Congress.
- Act: Re-organization, 1939. Re-organization Plan No. 1 (*Code of Federal Regulations of the United States of America*, 1939 Supplement, Book 1 Chapter IV, pp. 248-254).
- Act: Re-organization, 1945. Re-organization Plan No. 3 (*Federal Register*, 20 July 1946).
- Act: Labor-Federal Security Appropriation, 1947. Public Law 549, 79th Congress, 1946.
- Executive Order: No. 9247, transferring certain employment service and training functions to the War Manpower Commission. 17 September 1942.
- Executive Order: No. 9617, transferring certain agencies and functions to the Department of Labor, 19 September 1945.
- Act: Railroad Retirement, 1937. Public Law No. 162, 75th Congress, as amended.
- Act: Railroad Unemployment Insurance, 1938. Public Law No. 722, 75th Congress, as amended.
- Act: Agricultural Appropriation, 1924. 26 February 1923 (42 Stat. 1289).
- Act of Congress: Civil Service Commission. 16 January 1883 (22 Stat. 403).

Venezuela

Statutory Basis and General Organisation

The Government of Venezuela ratified the Unemployment Convention, 1919, on 6 November 1944.

Chapter X of the Labour Act, as amended by the Act of 4 May 1945, and regulations subsequently issued govern the establishment and organisation of employment exchanges. Under the provisions of Decree No. 240, of 6 April 1946, the National Employment Exchange was set up at the capital of the Republic, under the Ministry of Labour and Communications but having its own separate offices and staff. The National Employment Exchange is administered by a director, an assistant director, a chief of service and a number of officials in charge of the register of the unemployed.

Regional employment exchanges are to be established in the principal towns of the Republic. Wherever there are a considerable number of women employed, a suboffice under a woman manager is to be established.

In conformity with regulations issued in virtue of the Labour Act, the National Labour Office includes, among its various sections, one which is responsible for labour inspection, placement and industrial relations. The activities of this section relating to employment are to be carried out by the authorities dealing with labour matters in areas in the interior of the Republic wherever no competent regional employment exchange is established. These authorities will inform the National Employment Exchange concerning work done on such questions.

Fee-charging employment agencies may not be established in Venezuela. Pending their abolition, by decision of the Ministry of Labour, existing agencies are subject to the supervision of the National Employment Exchange; to this end they were required to submit, within 15 days of the publication of the Decree of 6 April 1946, a detailed statement describing their constitution, operation, fees charged and any other data ordered by the Employment Exchange. Both the National Employment Exchange and the regional exchanges are prohibited from receipt of payment for their placement activities, since all expenses are to be met by the Treasury.

When circumstances permit, the Director of the National Employment Exchange may, subject to the Ministry's authorisation, establish advisory committees, composed of equal numbers of employers and workers, to help in finding a solution for problems arising out of the operation of the employment exchanges.

The national, State and municipal authorities, public institutions and other Government establishments must provide the National Employment Exchange with any figures and information which it may ask. Existing private employment agencies must be registered with the National Employment Exchange.

General Functions

The National Employment Exchange is responsible for co-ordinating offers of and applications for employment, and is charged with the following functions:

(1) to arrange for the placing of such workers as apply to it, in the employment of Government services, independent public establishments, private institutions, and with private employers in general;

(2) to encourage small-scale family industries by means of loans which may not exceed 500 bolivares, subject to the authorisation of the Ministry of Labour in each case;

(3) to compile statistics concerning unemployment and the living conditions of the workers affected by it; and to study measures for submission to the Ministry of Labour for the solution of these problems;

(4) to examine how it may collaborate with the competent authorities in the establishment of handicraft schools for the technical training of workers;

(5) to take appropriate action to prevent the rural exodus and to retain agricultural workers on the land;

(6) to study the provisions of employment contracts in the various regions of the country and to make recommendations to the Ministry of Labour on the setting up of regional employment exchanges;

(7) to collect the data required for maintaining a national register of workers; to this end, it may require the national, State and municipal authorities to provide it with the data which it considers relevant.

In order that the National Employment Exchange may co-ordinate applications for and offers of employment, the regional exchanges are to send to it a weekly statement of the applications for employment and for workers made to them, showing separately those which have been met, those which it is expected can be met and those in respect of which there is no immediate prospect of employment in the locality. The National Exchange must collate these statements and communicate the data to the regional exchanges. Moreover, the Director of the National Exchange, or the person appointed by him for this purpose, is to visit the regional exchanges periodically for inspection purposes, and every three months publish statistics of the placing operations of all the exchanges.

The functions of the National Labour Office include the following among others:

(1) to secure conformity with the provisions of the Labour Act which relate to employment exchanges or offices, to supervise the work of the National Exchange and regional exchanges and to undertake such enquiries as are necessary;

(2) to study appropriate action to combat involuntary unemployment and facilitate the placement of workers;

(3) to study any disequilibrium between the demand for and the supply of labour, whether of a permanent or a temporary character and whether territorial or occupational in scope;

(4) to stimulate private activity to combat economic depression;

- (5) to distribute economic information which may interest workers contemplating a change of residence;
- (6) to lay the foundation for a census of national and foreign workers.

Use of the Service

When engaging labour for national, State or municipal public works, preference must be given — other circumstances being equal — to persons whose applications are registered at the National Employment Exchange and more especially to men with family responsibilities. The provision regarding the latter is mandatory up to 60 per cent. of personnel.

The National Employment Exchange classifies and publishes all applications for employment and all vacancies. In order to facilitate its work, the Exchange maintains three registers, showing: (1) applications for employment; (2) offers of employment; (3) particulars concerning employers or workers who do not comply with the stipulations of contracts of employment.

Applications for employment must be made by the applicant in person at the National Employment Exchange, where a form must be filled out, giving the following data: name and address; wages and type of employment desired; present occupation; reference and identity papers held.

Selected Official References

Ratification of Unemployment Convention (*Gaceta Oficial*, 4 January 1945, Extra No. 118, pp. 5-6).

Act: Labour Act Amendment (*Gaceta Oficial*, 10 May 1945, Extra No. 132, p. 26).

Decree: No. 240, Establishment of National Employment Exchange (*Gaceta Oficial*, 6 April 1946, No. 21978, p. 148, 574).

MINISTERIO DEL TRABAJO Y DE COMUNICACIONES: *Reglamenta de la Ley del Trabajo* (Caracas, Imprenta Nacional, 1939), p. 118.

APPENDIX III

LOCAL EMPLOYMENT COMMITTEES IN GREAT BRITAIN

Extracts from Memorandum of the Ministry of Labour and National Service

INTRODUCTORY

1. Local Employment Committees were originally set up under Regulations made by the Minister of Labour in 1917 under the Labour Exchanges Act, 1909, their purpose being to secure for the Ministry the full benefit of local knowledge and to bring the Employment Exchanges into close touch with employers and workpeople in their respective areas. In 1939, there was, in general, a Local Employment Committee attached to each Employment Exchange, totalling 340 Employment Committees in Great Britain. The work of many of the Committees lapsed under wartime conditions, but the Minister is convinced that they are indispensable to the proper working of the Ministry's local organisation and has decided to bring them back into full operation.

2. This memorandum contains an outline of the constitution and functions of the Committees. In general, they are entrusted with the widest functions of advice and guidance in the working of the Employment Exchanges consistent with the responsibility to Parliament for the administration of the Department which the Minister must necessarily retain...

CONSTITUTION

3. A Local Employment Committee consists of three sections, namely an Employers' Panel, a Workers' Panel, and an Additional Members' Panel. The industrial panels are composed of equal numbers of representatives of employers and workpeople, appointed by the Minister after consultation with local associations of employers and workpeople respectively. The Additional Members' Panel, which should not exceed one third of the total membership of the Committee, may include representatives of any other local Committees advising the Minister on special subjects (*e.g.*, the Juvenile Advisory Committees and Committees dealing with disablement problems, referred to in paragraphs 18 and 22) or of the Women's Sub-Committee or other Sub-Committees of the Local Employment Committee, persons representing Local Authorities and such bodies as Ex-Service Associations, Social Service Organi-

sations, and also persons with special knowledge or experience, not necessarily connected with industry. The Chairman of the Local Employment Committee is nominated and appointed by the Minister and the Committee itself appoints a Vice-Chairman. Provision is made for the attendance of official representatives at the meetings of the Committees and the necessary secretarial assistance and accommodation are provided by the Ministry...

Periodical Reconstitution

4. Except when the Minister otherwise directs in any particular case, the normal period of appointment of Committees is one of three years, after which reconstitution is normally effected in accordance with the foregoing principles.

Sub-Committees

5. Sub-Committees may be appointed to deal with special subjects. The membership of Sub-Committees is subject to the approval of the Minister, who, however, leaves the Committees a wide latitude in the selection of members.

6. The Regulations require every Local Employment Committee to set up a Sub-Committee to deal with problems affecting women's employment unless the Minister is satisfied that it is unnecessary. The Women's Sub-Committee is constituted so far as possible in accordance with the principles governing the constitution of the main Committee, i.e., it should include equal numbers of persons representative of employers and workpeople, together with additional persons as required. If she is not already a member of the main Committee, the Chairman of the Women's Sub-Committee should be invited to serve as a member of the Additional Members' Panel.

Co-ordination with Other Local Advisory Committees

7. Separate local Advisory Committees have been established in most areas to deal with juvenile employment and disablement problems and these subjects must accordingly be regarded as normally outside the scope of Local Employment Committees. Local Employment Committees are, however, recognised as the main advisory bodies attached to the Employment Exchanges and they will naturally wish to have a working knowledge of the functions and work of the other Committees. This will be facilitated by the arrangements for overlapping of membership referred to in paragraph 3. Chairmen or members of these local Advisory Committees, or their Sub-Committees, may, if necessary, be co-opted on to the Local Employment Committee, regardless of the number of members appointed to the Additional Members' Panel, but they will, in this event, not be voting members of the Committee.

Co-operation with District Committees of the Regional Boards for Industry

8. The Regional Boards for Industry are empowered to appoint District Committees for such districts as appear to them necessary,

to which they may delegate any matters falling within the Boards' own functions. When a District Committee is considering a matter related to a district covered by a Local Employment Committee and wishes to have additional information about the employment situation, or the views of industry in the locality, it will generally ask the Ministry of Labour and National Service to obtain the information needed or the views of the Local Employment Committee, as the case may be. Appropriate arrangements will be made for representation at the meeting of the District Committee at which the matter is discussed.

Expenses of Members

9. Service on Local Employment Committees is voluntary and unpaid but allowances for necessary travelling and subsistence and compensation for actual loss of earnings may be paid to members attending meetings of a Committee...

FUNCTIONS OF COMMITTEES

General Advisory Functions

10. These include, subject to paragraph 7, the consideration of any matters arising out of the work of the Employment Exchanges for which the Minister of Labour and National Service is responsible. In particular, Committees are invited to look into any complaints or criticisms by members of the public and to suggest improvements.

Placing Workpeople in Employment

11. The primary function of the Employment Exchanges is to bring together employers requiring workpeople and workpeople seeking employment. Their aim is to provide an efficient service to both employers and workpeople and to organise the movement of labour from job to job, and from district to district in such a way that employers may obtain as quickly as possible workers suitable for their requirements, and those in search of employment may speedily find the work best suited to their qualifications and experience.

12. The Ministry is anxious to make its service as efficient as possible and desires that it should be fully used. Members of Local Employment Committees, individually, can render valuable assistance by drawing the attention of persons and Associations with whom they are in touch to the advantages of regular use of the Exchanges. Committees themselves are urged to give special attention to this aspect of the work. They should receive reports at regular intervals showing the progress of placing work, the number and class of placings effected by the Employment Exchanges, and the extent to which engagements of workpeople are known to have been made otherwise than through the Employment Exchanges. Where it appears that the assistance of the Employment Exchanges could use-

fully have been sought, the Committees should take such steps as may seem possible to remove any misconception which may exist, and to secure that the Exchanges are given the opportunity of assisting in filling future vacancies. In many cases, it may be found useful to set up a special Placing Sub-Committee to keep in closer and more constant contact with the placing work of the Employment Exchange.

13. A Placing Service has also been set up by the Appointments Department of the Ministry of Labour and National Service for persons who, prior to the war, did not normally attend Employment Exchanges to secure employment . . . Members of Local Employment Committees may be able to further the work of the Ministry by representing to the firms and Associations with whom they are in touch the advantages to be secured by the use of the above-mentioned Registers when the services of people in the categories dealt with by the Appointments Department are needed.

State of Local Employment

14. In future, Local Employment Committees will have a new and most important task in connection with the Government's policy of maintaining a high and stable level of employment. The execution of this policy must be based on adequate, accurate and timely information as to the employment position and prospects, and the Ministry of Labour and National Service is responsible for assembling full information as to the demands for and availability of labour, actual and prospective. In this connection, Exchange Managers are required to submit regular appreciations of the employment position and prospects in their areas. Local Employment Committees will be consulted in connection with these reports and their help will be particularly valuable in interpreting the statistics of employment and unemployment in the various local industries, so as to provide an accurate picture of the situation and the way in which it is likely to develop. From their experience and contacts with industry and commerce in their areas, members of Local Employment Committees may be able to indicate reasons for changes in the volume of employment or influences making for future changes, and they may be able to suggest local measures which can help to overcome difficulties.

Vocational Training Schemes

15. Members of Local Employment Committees acting individually, or through the Committees or Sub-Committees, can help in bringing to the notice of men and women who are not in touch with Local Offices, the various Vocational Training schemes conducted by the Ministry, and in keeping the existence of these schemes prominently before firms or individual employers who may be in a position to offer employment to trainees on the completion of their courses.

Resettlement

16. The change-over from war to peace-time conditions gives rise to many problems connected with demobilisation, reinstatement in civil employment, training those whose apprenticeships have been interrupted, reallocation of civilian manpower, etc. A Resettlement Advice Service, forming part of the Employment Exchange service, has been set up in order that all possible assistance, by information and advice, may be given to men and women in need of resettlement following war service in the Armed Forces, in the Civil Defence Services, or in industry. Local Employment Committees are invited to interest themselves in this work.

Welfare

17. During the period of intensified war effort it was found that a heavy strain was placed on factory workers engaged on work of national importance; this created problems of welfare which the Minister met by appointing a Factory and Welfare Advisory Board to advise him on all welfare questions and to assist him in promoting satisfactory housing and living conditions, adequate transport facilities, good food, attractive recreational facilities and adequate social services . . . This work will continue as a permanent function of the Ministry and, particularly in view of the value of local knowledge on matters of this kind, it is hoped that Local Employment Committees will interest themselves in it.

Juveniles

18. The employment of boys and girls forms a special branch of work involving, amongst other things, co-operation with schools, the giving of vocational guidance, and supervision after placing. In nearly all Employment Exchange areas a special advisory committee has been appointed to assist in the administration of this work, which in some instances is the direct responsibility of the Local Education Authorities under powers contained in Section 81 of the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1935. Accordingly, where a Juvenile Advisory Committee or a Juvenile Employment Committee has been established, the Local Employment Committee is not concerned with young people under 18 years of age. However, in order to provide for close co-operation in matters of mutual interest, the constitution of Local Employment Committees provides for a member of the Juvenile Advisory Committee or the Juvenile Employment Committee to be appointed to the Additional Members' Panel of the Local Employment Committee for the area.

Trade Disputes

19. In view of the jointly agreed procedure which has been established in most industries for the settlement of trade disputes and the existence of arrangements for intervention, when necessary, by officers of the Industrial Relations Department of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, it is not considered expedient for

Local Employment Committees to take any part in the settlement of industrial disputes.

Factory Inspection

20. . . . The Factory Inspectorate functions separately from the Employment Exchange service, and its work does not, therefore, fall within the purview of Local Employment Committees, although there is close liaison with the Officers of the Ministry dealing with the other aspects of welfare work (see paragraph 17).

Wages Boards and Wages Councils

21. Statutory minimum remuneration and holidays with pay are in force in a number of trades under Orders made by the Minister of Labour and National Service under the Wages Councils Act, 1945, the Road Haulage Wages Act, 1938, and the Catering Wages Act, 1943. The enforcement of these Orders is in the hands of the Wages Inspectorate, which, like the Factory Inspectorate, functions separately from the Employment Exchange Service.

Disabled Persons

22. The Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, 1944, has assigned to the Ministry of Labour and National Service the study of making further and better provision for enabling persons handicapped by disablement to secure employment or work on their own account The Act provides for the establishment of District Advisory Committees to advise the Minister on the problem of disablement in their areas and to carry out certain executive functions. This work therefore is removed from the scope of the Local Employment Committees, but a link with District Advisory Committees has been secured in the manner indicated in paragraph 7.

National Insurance

23. Under the Ministry of National Insurance (Unemployment Insurance and Assistance) Order, 1945, the functions of the Minister of Labour and National Service under the Unemployment Insurance Acts, 1935 to 1944, and the Unemployment Assistance Acts, 1934 to 1940, were, with certain exceptions, transferred to the Minister of National Insurance as from 1 April 1945. These arrangements have not so far affected the work of Employment Exchanges in connection with the local administration of the foregoing Acts, but the staff concerned, while remaining officers of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, act as agents of the Ministry of National Insurance. Local Employment Committees may deal with matters affecting the working of the Employment Exchanges under these arrangements. Questions concerning the responsibility of the Ministry of National Insurance will be submitted to that Department as necessary.

Courts of Referees

24. Courts of Referees are set up under the Unemployment Insurance Act to deal with questions concerning title to benefit. . . . The appointments are made by the Minister after he has taken into consideration the names of any persons suggested for appointment by the Local Employment Committee.

Staff and Premises

25. The responsibility of the Minister to Parliament necessitates the retention of full control of the staff and premises of Employment Exchanges, and this responsibility cannot be delegated to Local Employment Committees. Moreover, the Exchanges must be conducted as a national system, and in questions of finance and staffing the Minister must consider the Exchange Service as a whole.

26. The Committees are empowered to advise as to the hours during which the Exchanges should be opened to the public. The Exchange premises in most cases include rooms which are suitable for meetings of local associations of employers or workpeople or approved societies, and the Employment Exchanges (Advisory Committee) Regulations, 1917, provide that accommodation for such purposes shall be granted by the Department in accordance with terms and conditions laid down in general rules adopted by the Committees with the approval of the Minister. Applications for accommodation of this kind are laid before the Committees in the first instance.

Local Publicity

27. A Local Employment Committee is responsible for supplementing national publicity regarding the work of the Employment Exchanges by arranging local publicity for the work of the Exchange to which it is attached. Periodical local publicity is an important method of bringing the placing work of the Exchanges before the notice of employers, and Committees are invited to consider means of arranging this.

MODEL RULES OF PROCEDURE

Times of Ordinary Meetings

I. Meetings of the Committee shall be summoned by the Secretary after consultation with the Chairman and shall be held as frequently as may be required; in the absence of special circumstances, a meeting should be held at least once in each quarter and, subject to this proviso, any meeting of the Committee may adjourn its proceedings to such time as may be determined by such meeting.

Agenda at Ordinary Meetings

II. In the case of ordinary meetings, all matters for the Agenda proposed by members of the Committee must be furnished in

writing to the Secretary not later than 14 days before the date of meeting; but this shall not prevent other urgent matters being raised under the heading of "Other Business" and taken after the transaction of the items specifically mentioned on the Agenda. The Agenda shall not be limited to matters referred to the Committee by the Minister of Labour and National Service, provided the Chairman, or a majority of the persons present and entitled to vote, do not dissent from such a course.

Notice of Ordinary Meetings

III. A summons to attend ordinary meetings, together with a copy of the Agenda, shall be posted to members at least 10 days before the date of meeting.

Special Meetings

IV. Special meetings shall be summoned at not less than 24 hours' notice by the Secretary if so requested in writing by or on behalf of the Minister of Labour and National Service, or by not less than five members of the Committee. The request for and the notice summoning a special meeting shall specify the nature of the business to be transacted.

Chairman

V. At every meeting the Chairman, or, in his absence, the Vice-Chairman (if any), shall preside. If both the Chairman and Vice-Chairman (if any) are absent, such other member shall preside as the members present at the meeting shall choose.

Quorum

VI. The quorum of the Committee shall consist only of persons entitled to vote and shall be equivalent to not less than one third of the whole number of the Committee, in addition to the person presiding at the meeting.

Attendance of Officers of the Ministry of Labour and National Service at Meetings

VII. Any officer of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, when so instructed by the Department, shall have the right to be present and speak at a meeting of the Committee but shall not have the right to vote.

Proceedings not to be Void through Vacancy or Defective Appointment

VIII. Any act or proceeding of the Committee shall not be questioned on account of any vacancy in the Committee or on account of its afterwards being discovered that the appointment

of any member was defective. The accidental omission to give notice of a meeting to, or the non-receipt of such notice by, any member shall not invalidate any Resolution passed or other proceedings at any meeting.

Meetings to be Private

IX. The meetings of the Committee shall be private, but at the discretion of the person presiding at the meeting, representatives of the Press may be admitted to meetings when matters of public importance are being discussed. All matters affecting individual employers or workpeople shall be treated as confidential and these and other confidential matters shall be discussed in private.

Voting

X. Every question at a meeting of the Committee shall be decided by the majority of votes of the members present and voting on that question, and, in the case of equality of voting, the person presiding at the meeting shall have a second or casting vote. Co-opted members shall not be entitled to vote (see also Rule XVI).

Recording Views of Minority

XI. If any members present at a meeting of the Committee dissent from a resolution passed by a majority of the Committee at that meeting, they shall have the right to have their views duly recorded, and it shall be the duty of the Chairman to forward this record with a copy of the resolution to the Minister of Labour and National Service.

Preparation and Circulation of Minutes

XII. The Minutes of the proceedings of each meeting shall be kept by the Secretary of the Committee, and shall be circulated to the members with the agenda for the subsequent meeting.

Sub-Committees

XIII. The Committee may refer any matter to a Sub-Committee appointed in accordance with the Employment Exchanges (Advisory Committee) Regulations, 1917, with or without power to act on their behalf; and the membership of a Sub-Committee need not be confined to persons who are members of the Committee.

Resignation of Membership

XIV. The Chairman, or any member of the Committee, may resign his office by giving notice in writing to the Minister.

Absence from Meetings

XV. Any member who fails to attend one half of the total number of meetings to which he is summoned in any calendar year,

except for some cause approved by the Committee, shall be deemed to have vacated his seat but shall be eligible for reappointment.

Deputies

XVI. If a member of a Committee is unable to attend a meeting to which he has been summoned, he may, with the concurrence of the Committee, be represented by a deputy. The deputy shall not be entitled to vote unless the Committee decides otherwise.

Application of Rules to Meetings of Sub-Committees

XVII. These rules shall apply, *mutatis mutandis*, to any Sub-Committee in the same manner as they apply to the Committee.

APPENDIX IV

DRAFT CONVENTION BETWEEN DENMARK, FINLAND, ICELAND, NORWAY AND SWEDEN CONCERNING THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A COMMON NORTHERN EUROPEAN EMPLOYMENT MARKET

The following Draft Convention was adopted at a meeting of the Ministers of Social Affairs of the Northern European countries held in Copenhagen from 10 to 12 September 1945. The Convention was ratified by Sweden on 19 December 1945.

Draft Convention

Irrespective of the varying conditions that will prevail in the Northern countries, especially in the immediate post-war period, the Governments have agreed on the following:

I. TRANSFER OF UNEMPLOYED LABOUR

Article 1

The contracting countries shall appoint a joint committee, consisting of one or more representatives of the central employment service authorities of the individual countries, for the purpose of following the employment situation in the individual countries.

Article 2

The central employment service authority of one country may address a request to the corresponding authority in one or more of the contracting countries concerning the transfer of suitable workers.

Article 3

1. It shall be the duty of the employment service authority receiving a request as specified in Article 2 to assist the authority making the request by investigating the possibility of co-operating in the desired placement.

2. If no suitable unemployed workers are available in the country from which labour is sought, or if the workers offered cannot be employed, the central employment service authority shall state that the placement is impossible.

3. If the central employment service authority considers that, in consequence of the placement, a shortage of suitable national labour or unemployment may be expected to arise immediately or in the

near future in the occupation or area affected by the desired placement, the said central authority shall advise that it cannot co-operate in the placement.

Article 4

If an unemployed worker seeks, through the central employment service of his country, to find work in one of the other contracting countries, the service shall transmit to the central employment service authority of the country in question such information concerning the worker as may be needed to provide suitable employment for him, provided that the rules contained in Article 3 are applied *mutatis mutandis*.

II. EMPLOYMENT PERMITS

Article 5

An employment permit shall not be required in the contracting countries so far as the nationals of those countries are concerned.

III. RECIPROCITY WITH REGARD TO SOCIAL LEGISLATION

Article 6

1. With a view to introducing increased reciprocity within the Northern social insurance systems and other social legislation, a permanent committee shall be set up, consisting of two members for each country selected by the Governments of the contracting countries. The representatives of the individual countries shall have the right to call on experts to the extent considered necessary to deal with the questions before them.

2. The committee may make recommendations concerning such amendments or additions to the social legislation and administrative practice of the Northern countries as may be considered expedient for the purpose of bringing about increased reciprocity and uniformity.

IV. DATE OF OPERATION, ETC.

Article 7

1. This Convention shall come into force on 1 January of the year following the date on which it has been ratified by at least two of the contracting parties.

2. The Convention may be denounced by any one of the contracting parties by giving one year's notice for 1 January of the following year.

Draft Protocol

Desiring to establish a framework for the transfer of unemployed labour between the Northern countries, the Governments of the

contracting countries have adopted a Convention concerning the establishment of a common Northern employment market.

In this connection it is realised that the present circumstances differ in the participating countries, and in particular that it is of the greatest importance to the countries most affected by the war that their manpower should be available for national reconstruction work.

It is therefore agreed that a request for labour should not be addressed to these countries without the consent of the representative of the country in question on the joint committee mentioned in Article 1 of the Convention.

The work begun before the war with regard to the exchange of young workers for training purposes should, however, be resumed and extended at the earliest possible date.

It is further agreed that the regulations in the Convention should be administered in such a way that there will be no question of transferring to one of the other countries persons who have displayed an unpatriotic attitude during the war, and that the national legislation and administration should aim, in general, at preventing such persons from taking employment in one of the other countries.

Lastly, if it is found that one or more of the Northern countries are at present unable to ratify the Convention, the contracting countries are agreed that such countries shall be requested to participate in the two committees mentioned in Articles 1 and 6 of the Convention.

APPENDIX V

NOTE ON THE OCCUPATIONAL RESEARCH PROGRAMME OF THE UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

From the beginning, the United States Employment Service has taken a keen interest in the development of occupational research as a basic means of promoting more effective placement work and of widening the usefulness of the Service to employers and workers. The programme of occupational research has now become a major function of the whole Employment Service. It has had a profound effect upon the placement techniques used by employment offices and has led to the development of the nationally applicable standard terminology for the various occupations which is essential if placement is to be carried on effectively in a co-ordinated network of co-operating employment offices.

The headquarters of the United States Employment Service pioneered in the field of occupational research in many respects. At present, the services of many other countries are expanding their functions rapidly in this same direction. Australia, Belgium, Canada, France, Great Britain, India and New Zealand consider that such activities should form an important part of national employment service programmes and that they are a requisite of plans to improve the work of the national services in many other fields. Because of the importance of occupational research in employment service work and the proven usefulness of the United States Employment Service programme in this field, a brief summary is given below of the major tools and techniques it has worked out for the analysis of occupations. The programme of occupational research differs from the basic programme of employment market information because it is concerned primarily with the requirements of the many occupations of industrial society and the relationships between them.¹

JOB ANALYSIS

Job analysis is the cornerstone of occupational research. Accurate information concerning the technical requirements of all the various jobs is essential for sound placement work and the key to efficient personnel management and collective bargaining. The United States Employment Service trained special staff experts, now known as occupational analysts, and sent them into industrial undertakings to study and report on the requirements of the jobs of the workers.

¹ The material used here is taken from the *U.S. Employment Service Manual* and the *Employment Service Review*.

Such analyses, made according to an integrated national plan, have resulted over the last decade in the accumulation of precise data covering over 100,000 jobs and specifying what the worker does, how he does it, why he does it, what technical skills he needs to possess, what other qualities are required, etc. This information must be kept up to date, since job requirements are constantly changing with changes in technology, the structure of industry, the composition of the labour force, etc. The task of job analysis is thus a continuing one for each particular job in each type of undertaking and occupation.

The *Training and Reference Manual for Job Analysis* describes and explains the procedure followed by the occupational analysts of the Employment Service and indicates the manner in which the analyses may be put into practical use. A pocket-sized reference book, *Guide for Analysing Jobs*, lists the key principles and methods of job analysis and provides a useful work book for analysts. It notes illustrative examples and considerations applying to a wide variety of jobs.

PHYSICAL DEMANDS ANALYSIS AND PHYSICAL CAPACITIES APPRAISAL

Physical demands analysis involves a description of the physical energy requirements of the job and of the fatigue and hazard and other environmental factors surrounding it. The descriptions are worked out on a standard check-form, which lists the many different factors of this type that must be taken into account in effective job performance. Physical capacities appraisal is the other side of this analysis, that is, analysis of the capacities and limitations of the worker in well-defined terms, comparable to the analysis of the physical demands made by the job itself. While these techniques have been particularly useful in placing handicapped workers in suitable jobs, they have a much wider application in all placement work and especially in the placement of workers in jobs involving rigorous physical requirements (strenuous lifting, carrying, stretching, or walking, for example, or exposure to intense cold or heat, etc.). Moreover, a standard terminology is provided for the employment officer, the personnel officer of industry, the doctor or industrial medicine expert, the trade union concerned with the recruitment, employment and welfare of the workers, and so on. The matching of men and jobs may thus be somewhat removed from the realm of chance and guesswork and placed on the more solid ground of objective analysis, enabling placements to be made on the basis of what each worker can actually do in relation to what each job demands from him.

The Employment Service has published a volume entitled *Physical Demands Analysis and Physical Capacities Appraisal*, which outlines the techniques involved in this branch of occupational research, gives practical examples of their application, and includes models of the forms used by analysts in analysing job demands and worker capacities in these terms.

JOB DESCRIPTIONS

Job descriptions are built up from the recorded observations of job analysts and cover the same occupation in a variety of industries and localities. Each description shows the work performed, the equipment used and the customary transfer and upgrading relationships for the occupation. Sixteen major industries employing almost three fourths of the labour force, and about 160 additional individual occupations are covered in the publications entitled *National Job Descriptions*. Information is included about the organisation of industry, its processes and the flow of work, major job variations, training and experience requirements, factors important in selecting beginning workers, the physical and environmental demands of the job and working conditions. The job descriptions have been found to be useful to industry, placement and counselling officers and agencies and schools and in the development of vocational training curricula geared to industrial needs.

JOB FAMILIES

What are called "job families" are tables of related jobs identifying the kinds of workers who may most easily get into other available jobs with little or no retraining and the kinds of jobs which men and women with certain kinds of training and experience can fill successfully. In order to uncover relationships between one job and others, such factors are studied as similarities in the actual work performed, the material processed, the tools, equipment and machines used, and the knowledge and characteristics of the workers. These relationships are then presented in job family tables, in which the jobs most closely related to each other are placed nearest together in a series of tabulations.

DICTIONARY OF OCCUPATIONAL TITLES

The *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* defines and classifies over 23,000 jobs known by some 40,000 titles and covers the jobs in which more than 80 per cent. of the nation's labour force are employed. Each job title is listed and defined in terms of what the worker does and grouped according to the skills, knowledge and abilities required to perform each job. By standardising and coding job titles and terminology, the dictionary has been useful to the Employment Service, to industry, trade unions, trade schools, counselling and rehabilitation agencies, etc., in interviewing and hiring workers, classifying their jobs and maintaining uniform personnel records.

The dictionary is now published in two main parts with supplements. A further part will be a volume grouping into broad fields of work some 6,000 "entry" jobs in American industry which are most frequently open to persons with limited work experience. The basis for these groupings include, for example, casual or substandard work experience, training and education, leisure activities or sustained interests, and personal characteristics with some occupational

significance. Through these groups and their relationships to specific occupations listed in Part I of the dictionary, the war veteran, the early school-leaver, the person with rusty skill or experience, the physically handicapped, the one-job war worker and others can be helped to find fields of work in which they are likely to have some chance of success.

SPECIAL AIDS FOR PLACING MILITARY PERSONNEL IN CIVILIAN JOBS

In order to assist in converting military jobs to their civilian counterparts and thus in re-employing ex-service personnel, two volumes of *Special Aids for Placing Military Personnel in Civilian Jobs* relate the requirements of Army and Navy jobs to the requirements of civilian jobs. Each military job is related to an equivalent or comparable civilian job title and code, supplied, wherever possible, from the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*. Under the description of the requirements of the military job is given a list of the civilian jobs which might be filled by the veteran who had performed the military job, together with an indication of the kind and amount of additional training, retraining or experience, if any, which the shift to each civilian job would entail.

STAFFING SURVEYS

A staffing survey is essentially a labour force inventory of specific plants, shops and factories. Each job done in the undertaking is recorded with the job title by which it is designated in the undertaking, the corresponding title and code of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, the number of workers currently employed by job and sex, and indications of such personnel action as job analysis or wage evaluation studies. The survey is of practical service to employers, supplying them with an accurate classification of the jobs of the undertaking and helping them in recruiting, assigning, training, promoting and transferring workers.

INDUSTRY COMPOSITION PATTERNS

These patterns indicate the typical job composition of specified industries and show the skill distribution and training practices prevalent in them. Each pattern presents a composite of staffing surveys or comparable personnel-inventory records from a number of selected representative firms in the industry. The data are combined to give information aiding the location of workers for specific jobs, the guidance of persons in search of jobs where their skills will be fully used, the transfer of workers from declining to expanding industries and the recruitment of scarce workers for particular processes. They have also been useful in community employment planning, giving estimates of present and future labour supply and demand.

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